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THE BATTLE OF THE NATIONS

A YOUNG FOLKS' HISTORY
OF THE GREAT WAR

Which will be Read by All the Family

By FREDERIC ARNOLD FLANNERY

Author of "The War, / 1914-1918"

All American Book Company, Inc., New York

1918

THE BATTLE OF THE NATIONS

A Young Folks' History of the Great War

Which will be Read by
All the Family

By **Frederic Arnold Kummer**
Author of "The Web," etc.

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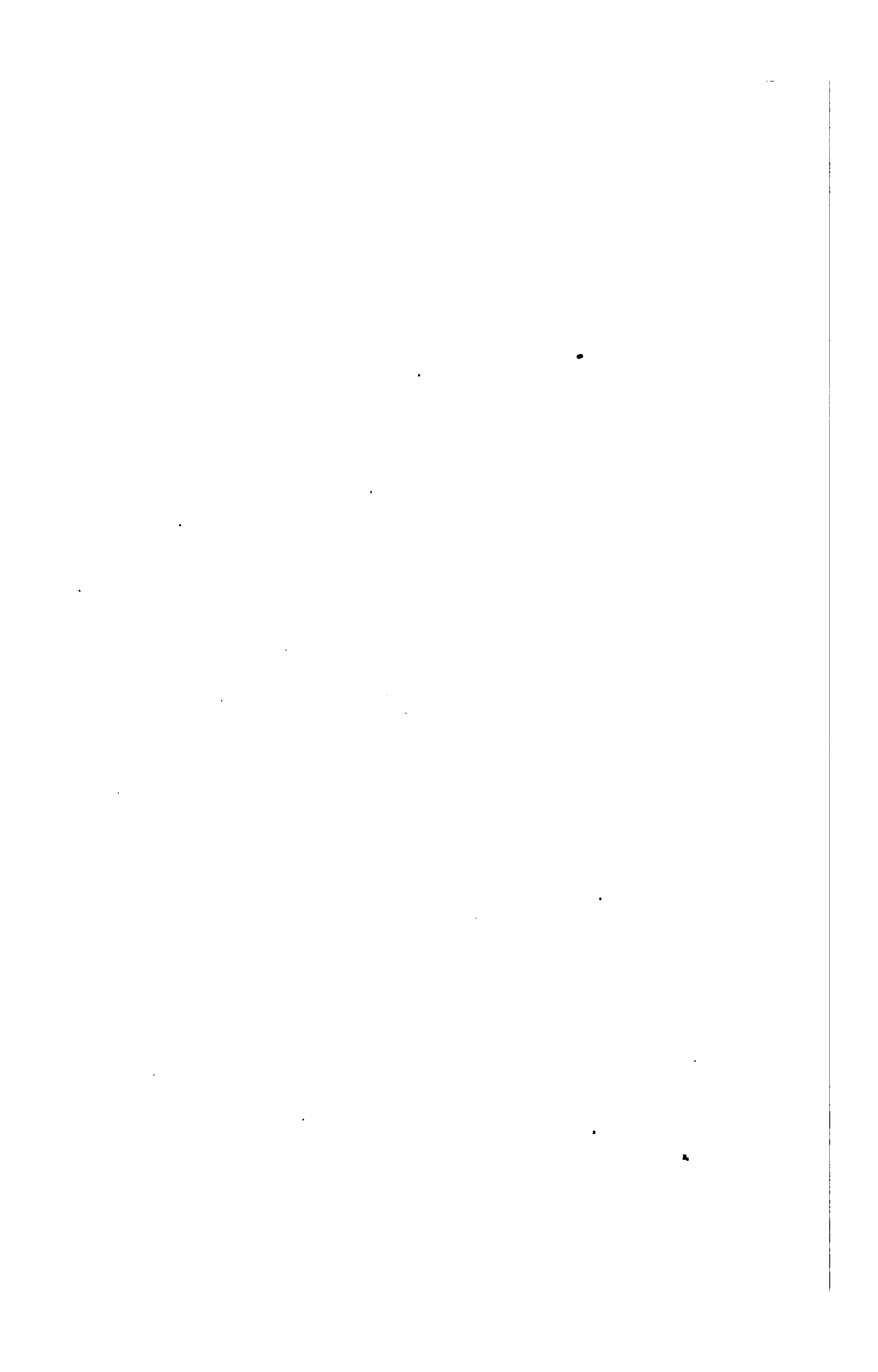
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**THE
BATTLE OF THE NATIONS**



**THE
BATTLE OF THE NATIONS**

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"TREAT 'EM ROUGH"

American manned French whippet tank put out of action by a German shell. Its operator is defending himself with his rifle

**THE
BATTLE OF THE NATIONS
1914-1918**

**A YOUNG FOLKS' HISTORY
OF THE GREAT WAR**

**BY
FREDERIC ARNOLD KUMMER, C.E.
MEM. AM. SOC. C. E.**

***ILLUSTRATED WITH
PHOTOGRAPHS***



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1919**

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**TO
MY CHILDREN**

PREFACE

It is one of my privileges, as a writer, to spend my days at home, and hence to enjoy a closer association with my children than falls to the lot of the average father. The youthful mind grows through asking questions, and all parents with a sense of their responsibilities do their best to answer them. During the progress of the Great War I was called upon on numberless occasions to explain to my youngsters what it was all about, and my efforts in this direction seemed so satisfactory to my own children that I am emboldened to put them in the form of a book, in the hope that they may prove equally so to the children of other parents not so fortunately situated as I have been.

FREDERIC ARNOLD KUMMER.

Catonsville, Maryland,
December 10, 1918.

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FOREWORD

The Battle of the Nations began in the year 1914, that is, one thousand, nine hundred and fourteen years after the birth of Christ, and lasted for over four and a quarter years. It was by far the greatest conflict in history, not alone because of the number of nations and men engaged on the two sides and the losses in life and property sustained, but also, and more particularly, because of the supreme importance to humanity of the questions involved.

Before the colossal struggle came to an end, over a score of nations had taken up arms, the fighting had extended from Europe to Asia, Africa, and the islands of the Pacific, and the effects of the conflict had been felt in every quarter of the globe. It was in truth a world war, and at its roots lay the struggle for freedom, for self-government, on the part of the people, which has been going on ever since the dawn of history.

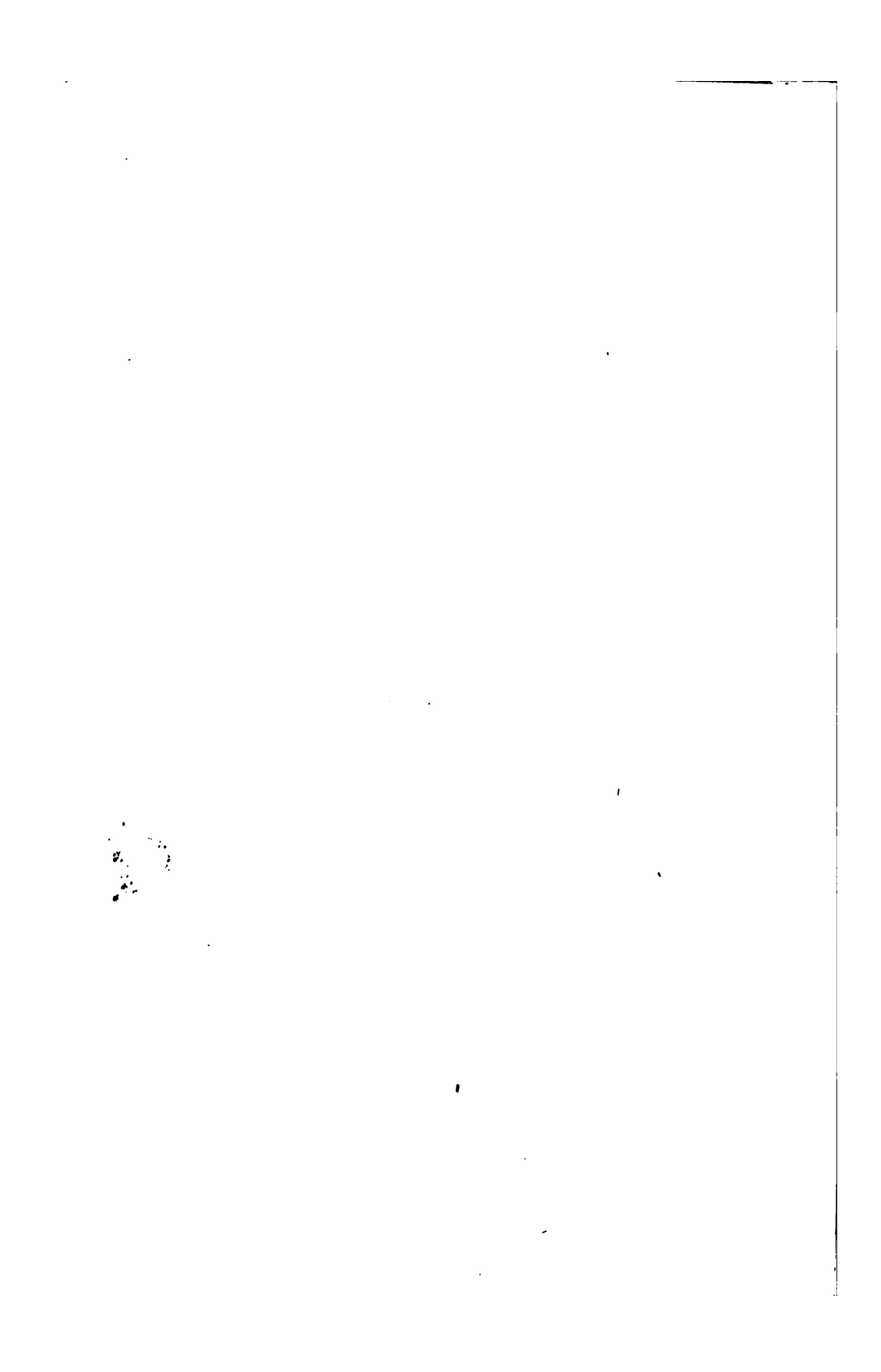
The time had come, in the onward progress of events, when great and far-reaching changes in the world's social system were necessary, and hence, in one sense, it may be said that the war was inevitable, even though its immediate causes were the greed and arrogance of a single small group of men. For many generations the details of this epoch-making conflict will be dis-

cussed; countless books will be written about it, covering its every phase. Within the limits of a single volume we cannot hope to do more than give a brief outline of its causes, its progress, and its effects. These once grasped, it becomes possible to undertake the study of the war in its more detailed aspects.

A very few figures are needed to show how vast the struggle was. It is estimated, although such estimates are by no means exact, that the war cost the world, in military expenditures alone, close to three hundred billion dollars. The human mind is unable to grasp such tremendous figures. Rough estimates of the casualties—that is, the number of men killed, wounded, and missing—in the armies of the various countries involved, are, for Russia, 7,000,000; for Germany, 6,000,000; for Great Britain, 3,000,000; for France, 4,000,000; for Belgium, 350,000; for Austria, 4,500,000; for Italy, 1,750,000; for Bulgaria, 200,000; for Turkey, 750,000; for Rumania, 200,000; for Serbia, 300,000; for Greece, 75,000, and for the United States, 275,000, a total of over 28,000,000 men. Over a million Armenians and other non-combatants were murdered. Losses in money and property almost beyond computation were sustained. The cost of the ships sunk, alone, was close to \$6,000,000,000, while the value of the buildings and personal property destroyed in Belgium, France, Serbia, and other countries within the war zone runs to unbelievable figures.

If, however, the losses were gigantic, the results obtained may in a sense be said to have compensated for them. An epitaph over the graves of some British soldiers in France reads, "For your to-morrow they gave their to-day." In this beautiful thought we find the answer to the question, Was the war worth while? Future generations, reaping the harvest which this generation has sown, will answer in the affirmative. The people of Germany, their nightmare of militarism gone, of Poland, free and united after their many years of suffering and oppression, of Austria, no longer under the iron heel of the Hapsburgs, of Bohemia, Bosnia, Herzegovina, Montenegro, Rumania, Transylvania, Bessarabia, Serbia, and the vast territories of Russia, of Turkey, of colonies in Africa, freed from the brutal misrule of the Kaiser, and last, but not least, of the Allied countries of Europe and of the United States itself, will, as the blessings of world freedom become more and more apparent, rise up and pay homage to those heroic men who, from so many countries and in so many climes, for the sake of our to-morrow gave us their to-day.

We cannot approach the study of this war as we would that of any other war in history. It was really not a war, so much as a world movement—the greatest that mankind has ever known.



**THE BATTLE OF THE
NATIONS**

THE BATTLE OF THE NATIONS

CHAPTER I

THE CAUSES

IN order that we may fully understand the causes of the great war let us look at a map of Europe as it was in July, 1914, before the war began.

We find that the German Empire, ruled by the Emperor or Kaiser William II, and the Austro-Hungarian Empire, ruled, when the war broke out, by the Emperor Francis Joseph, stretched in an unbroken body of land from the shores of the North and Baltic seas to the river Danube. These two countries and Italy had agreed among themselves that were any one of the three to be attacked by another power, the other two would at once come to its assistance. This agreement between Germany, Austria, and Italy was known as the Triple Alliance.

The other three great countries of Europe, as the map will show, were England, France, and Russia. Of these nations, two, France and Rus-

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sia, had an agreement to support each other in case of war, and the third, England, while not bound by any definite agreements with France and Russia, had given those countries to understand that if they were attacked by the Triple Alliance, she would come to their aid. This arrangement was known as the "*Entente cordiale*." England had also, some years before, entered into an offensive and defensive alliance with Japan, the purpose of which was to preserve the peace in the Far East.

Six other and smaller nations in Europe, as well as one in both Europe and Asia, also demand our attention. These are Belgium, on the North Sea, partially surrounded by France, Germany, and Holland; Serbia, Rumania, Bulgaria, Montenegro, and Greece, lying in the Balkan Peninsula, between the Black and the Adriatic seas, and Turkey, spreading from a small foothold in Europe at the tip of the Balkan Peninsula, across the Straits of the Dardanelles into Asia. It is necessary, in order to understand fully the causes which brought about the great war, to keep the locations of these several countries clearly in mind.

First, however, before we can take up the immediate causes of the war, we must understand something about Germany, and its ruler, the kaiser.

The German Empire, in the year 1914, was one of the richest and most powerful as well as one

of the youngest nations in Europe. It consisted of a federation of kingdoms and smaller states under the rule of the German Emperor, who was also the King of Prussia. The Kingdom of Prussia had for a long time been a nation that loved war. The great Napoleon once said that the Prussian state was hatched from a cannon-ball. Less than a hundred years ago, and long after Washington had fought the war which made America free, Prussia was an insignificant state compared with the great nations of Europe, such as France, Russia, and England. The members of its ruling family, the Hohenzollerns, were thoroughly unscrupulous, with little or no regard for the rights of others, and their great ambition was to make Prussia the leading nation of Europe.

Prussia was thoroughly beaten and humiliated by France under Napoleon at the battle of Jena, in 1806, but her revenge came at Waterloo, when Blücher arrived with his army and assisted in the defeat of the great emperor. This, however, by no means satisfied the rulers of Prussia. They longed for greater power, and determined to get it, by any and every means at their command.

There was no German Empire at this time. The country we now call Germany consisted of a large number of separate states, each with its own ruler. There were also four free cities. Some of the states, especially those in the south, such as Würtemberg and Bavaria, hated the

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Prussians cordially, but in spite of this fact the King of Prussia, William I, most ably assisted by his Chancellor, Prince Bismarck, determined to unite them in a single empire, of which Prussia should be the leading state, and he the supreme ruler.

We need not follow in detail the devious steps by which this was brought about. Prussia's methods had been very much the same ever since the ancestor of the Hohenzollerns, the Elector of Brandenburg, first came into power. Her rulers believed that might makes right, and that in order to make one's country great it was necessary only to seize the lands of weaker neighbors. In this way the two Danish provinces of Schleswig and Holstein, situated at the base of the Jutland Peninsula upon which Denmark lies, were boldly taken, and when Austria, who had assisted Prussia in the theft, became angry because Bismarck would give her none of the spoils, the "Iron Chancellor," as he was called, at once attacked Austria and defeated her decisively at the Battle of Sadowa, after a war which lasted only six weeks. This war made Prussia master of Austria, and she remained so for over fifty years.

One of the chief reasons for the quick military successes which Prussia gained in her wars arose from the fact that her army was not a paid or regular army, hired for the purpose of defending the country or attacking its enemies, but an army

of the people. Every man physically fit was obliged to serve, the nobles, who formed the military class, taking the positions of officers, while the common people were trained as soldiers under the most severe discipline in Europe. It was Frederick the Great, one of the earlier Hohenzollern kings of Prussia, who instituted this system of universal military training, and as a result of it his armies were able to seize and add to his dominions much additional territory, including a large part of the Kingdom of Poland, the other two parts of this unhappy country being held by Austria and Russia.

One result of Prussia's success against Austria was the formation of the North German Confederation, which consisted of a union of all the independent states in the north of Germany under the leadership of the King of Prussia. Bismarck's dream of a united Germany under Prussian domination was thus partly realized.

It required a war to fulfil it completely, and this war Bismarck soon supplied. Flushed with success, confident that his country could defeat any nation in Europe, he proceeded by diplomatic means to cause Napoleon III, the weak and incompetent Emperor of the French, to declare war against Germany in 1870. France, with the glorious memories of the great Napoleon behind her, anticipated no difficulty in defeating Germany, but when the Prussian troops, assisted by the South

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Germans (who had become suspicious of France's intentions toward them), crossed the border into France, it was soon evident that the French with all their bravery were not trained, equipped, or led as well as were the German forces, and the latter won a quick and easy victory. Within a few weeks two great French armies had surrendered, one at Metz, the powerful fortress of Lorraine, the other at Sedan. It would be well to remember the names of these two places, since by some strange coincidence the concluding acts of the great war took place at almost the same spots.

Now that her armies had been captured, and with them her emperor, France declared herself a republic. She was helpless, however, and although Paris made a brave resistance and held out for several months, it was at last taken, and at the palace of Versailles William I, King of Prussia, was declared the German Emperor. Thus the German Empire was formed, in the year 1871, just forty-three years before the outbreak of the great war.

France, defeated, was forced to pay to Germany a billion dollars and, what was even more important, to give up to her conquerors the valuable provinces of Alsace and Lorraine, situated along the western shores of the river Rhine. These provinces, the population of which was for the most part French, contained some of the most valuable

deposits of iron in Europe, although at the time Bismarck forced France to give them up the value of these ores was not known.

As a result of this war, which she had not sought and which had cost her so much money and territory, France felt a secret hatred for Germany, and the two countries regarded each other as natural enemies. Germany, knowing that the people of Alsace-Lorraine were at heart in sympathy with the French, proceeded to make every effort to stamp out this feeling. The use of the French language in churches and schools was forbidden, the French national air could not be played or sung, nor could the tricolor be displayed. Such attempts at the repression of the patriotic instincts of a people have never succeeded, yet Germany persisted in them, for upon such repression her whole system of autocratic rule was based. She had followed the same course in Poland for years, without success, and Austria was doing the same thing in the case of the many millions of Italians, Poles, Yugo-Slavs, Czechs, Rumanians, Croats, Slovenes and others held under her rule against their will. In other parts of the world the same process was going on—in Turkey with the Armenians and Arabs, in Russia with the Poles, Finns, and other races. Down to the very end of the nineteenth century kings and emperors considered it their right to treat alien peoples and their territories as pawns, to be handed about from

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one to the other in accordance with the results of some mighty game of chess played about the diplomatic peace table. This arbitrary and wrongful treatment of alien races was the chief underlying cause of the great war.

From France's defeat in 1871 to the beginning of the great war, over forty years elapsed. Emperor William I died, and his son Frederick soon followed him. In 1888 Kaiser William II came to the throne, dreaming of world power. Arrogant without being able or brilliant, he soon quarreled with Bismarck, and dismissed him. During this time Germany had been secretly planning, with the assistance of Austria, to extend her rule over still other alien peoples and races, and the new kaiser began to push with redoubled vigor his preparations for the war he knew was sure to come. These preparations did not consist alone in training armies and building ships, cannon, and fortifications. Other means were adopted. The people of Germany were told over and over that their wars in the past had been enormously profitable to them, in both money and territory, and that the next war would bring to their doors the riches of the world. In the German schools war was glorified as man's highest duty; might was placed above right; children were taught to believe that the German race was superior to all other races, the chosen people of God, to whom was entrusted the divine mission to rule the world. All this

nonsense was just as much a preparation for war as was the making of cannon; the kaiser's plans were to enslave other races and he thought that if he could make his people believe that in committing these crimes against humanity they were carrying out a divine command, he would have no difficulty in gaining their support. The method was an old one. From time immemorial unscrupulous rulers have claimed special permission from God to carry out their conquests so as the more easily to delude their ignorant subjects into assisting them. Hence the kaiser went up and down his country for twenty-five years, telling his people that small nations had no rights, and that he was ordained by God to give to these nations the sort of civilization they ought to have, whether they wanted it or not. It is improbable that the kaiser believed this; he merely dreamed of being another Cæsar or Alexander.

Other and more sinister methods were being used to prepare for the coming war. In every foreign country Germany's secret agents were at work, collecting information, organizing treachery, planning revolt. Among the officers of her navy "*Der Tag*" ("The Day") was a common toast, and meant the day when war would begin. Books were written and widely read, showing how Germany planned to seize Belgium and northern France, control the Channel ports, defeat England, make herself master of India, Egypt, and

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Western Russia, and gradually force her *kultur*, as she called her system of philosophy, upon all the races of the world.

Among her schemes was one called *Mittel-Europa*, which embraced the formation of a huge central European empire, stretching from the English Channel southeastwardly through Austria, the Balkan States, and Turkey, to Bagdad and thence to the head of the Persian Gulf. In preparation for this plan of a middle-European empire the kaiser had already visited Turkey and reached a secret understanding with the rulers of that country, while German capitalists had secured a concession to build what is known as the Berlin-to-Bagdad Railway, to run from Berlin via Vienna and Constantinople to Bagdad and the Persian Gulf. This road was designed not only to develop a huge trade with the Far East, but to be used as a military highway for attacking England in India. A branch line from Aleppo ran down through Damascus to Jerusalem, pointing toward England's great waterway to the east, the Suez Canal. When war broke out, a large part of this Berlin-to-Bagdad railroad had been completed.

In order fully to control this road, however, it was necessary that Germany, or her vassal, Austria, should control the Balkan states of Serbia and Bulgaria, through portions of whose territory the road was obliged to run. As events later proved, Germany was able to control Bulgaria

by means of a secret treaty, promising that country large increases in territory in case of a successful war. But Bulgaria and Serbia were bitter enemies, as a result of the former's defeat by Serbia in the second Balkan War, and the Serbians knew that the territory Germany had promised to Bulgaria was to be taken from them. Hence the control of Serbia by Germany and Austria became a very difficult matter.

Serbia is inhabited by an ancient and brave people belonging to the great Slavic race, which also inhabits the greater part of Russia. Serbia had once been much larger, and the two Austrian provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, unwarrantably seized by Austria some years before, were largely inhabited by people of her race. It was her dream to get these provinces away from Austria, whom she hated because the latter had persistently thwarted her desire to obtain a port on the Adriatic Sea, but Austria was bitterly opposed to a greater Serbia. Here again we observe how the arbitrary oppression of one race by another brought about enmity and ill feeling.

The Bulgarians were also largely Slavic, and the people of that country had little desire for an alliance with their national enemy Turkey, but this alliance was brought about by another autocratic ruler, not a Bulgarian by birth, the Emperor (or, as he called himself, "Czar") Ferdinand of Bulgaria, a crafty and unscrupulous monarch who

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thought of himself as a miniature kaiser, and dreamed of becoming more powerful by extending his rule over the peoples of other countries who did not desire it.

Russia, being of the same race as the Serbians, naturally felt a deep sympathy for them and their national aspirations. She also had another and more selfish reason for taking their part. Ever since the foundation of the Russian Empire by Peter the Great it had been the wish of that country to obtain possession of Constantinople. Hemmed in by the nations of western Europe, Russia had no outlet to the sea in the west except the port of Archangel, far to the north and useless for a large part of the year on account of the ice. She wished to possess Constantinople in order to send her ships, laden with grain, oil, and other commodities, from the Black Sea to the Mediterranean by way of the Straits of the Dardanelles, upon which Constantinople is situated. But the possession of Constantinople by Russia would have blocked at once Germany's plans for a great empire stretching through Asia Minor to the Persian Gulf. Hence Russia and Germany used the Balkan States as pawns, to checkmate each other in their political schemes. Even England in the past, before the establishing of cordial relations with France and Russia, had played this despicable game, and her statesmen had invariably supported the Turks and refused to allow

them to be driven out of Europe, because she did not wish either Russia, or Germany and Austria, to obtain possession of Constantinople, fearing that her trade with the East would be menaced. All this wretched business of playing politics with nations as pawns is in the highest degree immoral and wrong, and the world has reason to hope that the great war has finally put an end to it.

Such were the conditions of the various states of Europe when the fateful year of 1914 began. Germany, who had built up an enormous foreign trade in manufactured articles of all sorts, had become the most powerful nation on the continent of Europe. The low-grade iron ores in Lorraine, one of the provinces taken from France in 1871, had suddenly become very valuable, owing to new methods which were discovered for smelting them. Germany found herself producing almost as much steel as England, and far more than France. She had built a powerful navy, second only to that of England in size, and her merchant ships, under the flags of the great North-German-Lloyd and Hamburg-American lines, were to be found in every port of the globe. But still she was not satisfied. It was not enough to be great commercially; she wished to rule. Her plans for launching the middle-European empire were ripe, and only the national aspirations of the Serbian people and their brothers in Austria stood in her

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way. The kaiser and his military party decided that Serbia must be eliminated.

To get Serbia out of the way it was necessary to find an excuse to attack her. Such matters have never been difficult, where kings are concerned, and in June, 1914, fate, or, as some think, the manipulations of German and Austrian agents, provided the excuse that was needed. The Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, and his wife, visiting Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia, were assassinated by a mad student, who happened to be a Serbian. It did not take the kaiser and his advisors long to find in this event the opportunity they desired, if indeed they had not actually created it. It was contended by Germany and Austria that the act of the mad student had the secret approval of the Serbian Government, and was part of an organized plan to attack the Austrian monarchy and free Bosnia and Herzegovina. It was therefore decided to have Austria make demands upon Serbia so impossible and humiliating that no self-respecting nation could possibly submit to them, whereupon, having refused these demands, she would at once be set upon and conquered. If Russia, Serbia's friend, attempted to interfere, Germany would come to Austria's aid and keep Russia off. If Russia refused to be terrified by Germany, and with the help of her ally France opposed Germany's schemes, a general European war would result. The kaiser and his

supporters doubtless weighed the case carefully and decided that "The Day" had come. They wanted war because they were ready for war, and believed that Germany would win a quick and decisive victory. England, they thought, would not come in; they would take care of her when they had finished with Russia and France. Austria was therefore instructed to send a note to Serbia, making demands of the most insulting and impossible nature. Almost as soon as the note was sent, Germany and Austria began secret preparations for war.

From what has gone before it is clear that the basic causes of the great war are to be found in the pernicious doctrine of the divine right of kings, whereby autocratic rulers arrogated to themselves the right to govern other peoples without their wish or consent. This system found its highest development in the governments of Germany, Austria, and Turkey. The personal ambition of the kaiser to rule the world was but an extreme manifestation of it. His conception of the state was that of a collection of obedient and industrious slaves, under the sole rule of one man—himself. The democracies of England, France, and the United States were based on the opposite theory, that of rule by the people. It was inevitable that in time these two theories should clash. It was asserted, in the beginning, that the war was merely a duel between Germany and England for

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the commercial supremacy of the world, but this is not true. Germany could have obtained such supremacy by peaceful means—was in fact already far on the road to obtaining it when the war began. She wanted actual rule, actual power, over other races, and Serbia was merely the first victim. Such attempts to enslave other peoples naturally bring about resistance, a struggle to be free, and before the great war ended this cry for freedom had been heard around the globe; and the resistance of Serbia to Austria had developed into a struggle of oppressed peoples everywhere against their rulers, of democracy against autocracy, even in the ranks of the Allies themselves. In its largest aspect, the great war was a world revolution.

The German viewpoint, of course, was very different. Germany's leaders held that she must maintain a great army because she was surrounded on all sides by jealous enemies. Russia was regarded as a constant menace, since the Slav national aspirations ran counter to those of Germany. England and France were held to be envious of the growing commercial power of the German Empire. The kaiser and his supporters contended that Great Britain and the other European nations had seized all the overseas territories from which the raw materials of commerce could be obtained, and that the German people, just coming to the zenith of their power, should

possess some of these sources of supply. The Germans were multiplying rapidly, and needed room for expansion. They felt that there should be colonies under the German flag, as there were under the flag of England. What right had the British to govern Australia, India, Egypt, the German statesmen asked, when Germany could govern them so much better? There was much talk about the "freedom of the seas." England, by reason of her powerful navy, her coaling-stations all over the world, controlled the trade routes. Germany chafed at this control, although there is no evidence that it was ever used in times of peace to, hamper in any way her foreign commerce. It is perhaps possible to understand that a young and virile nation, dreaming of world power, might question the right of older nations to control vast sections of the globe by reason of prior conquest, but Germany could have hoped to replace Great Britain or France in this respect only by reason of superior ability to govern subject races and this ability she had never shown. Had she shown it, the British Empire would have collapsed at the first breath of war. That it did not do so is perhaps the best answer to German claims for world domination.

CHAPTER II

THE BEGINNING OF THE WAR

OF all the nations of Europe which we have mentioned in the preceding chapter, Belgium was perhaps the most peaceable. More densely populated than any other country in the world, devoted to industry of every sort, Belgium when the war began was quietly pursuing her way, happily governed by her democratic king, Albert, asking nothing from her neighbors except to be let alone.

Owing to her geographical position, Belgium had been the "cock-pit of Europe" for centuries. Wars had been fought upon the fields of Flanders ever since the days of Julius Cæsar and before. The epoch-making Battle of Waterloo took place almost within hearing of her capital city, Brussels. To free Belgium from the perpetual danger of war the great nations of Europe made, early in the last century, a solemn treaty guaranteeing her neutrality; that is, agreeing among themselves that in case of war troops were not to be moved into Belgian territory. Germany was one of the powers that signed this treaty, and the world at large supposed that she would prove faithful to her obligations.

So confident was France that the neutrality of Belgium would be respected in case of war that she took no steps to fortify her Belgian frontier. All of France's great border fortresses, such as Verdun, Epinal, Belfort, were situated along her eastern frontier, where her territory joined that of Germany. It did not occur to the French people that Germany would ever dare to attack them by way of Belgium. One wonders at this confidence on the part of the French, since many books published in Germany dealing with the coming war had declared that Germany would certainly attack through Belgium, and great German military railroads running up to the Belgian frontier had been constructed solely for use in war. England did not feel so sure of Germany, and had already discussed with the Belgian military leaders what steps they should take in case Germany proved false to her trust.

When the outrageous demands made by Austria upon Serbia were sent to Belgrade, the Kaiser of Germany was on a yachting trip in the North Sea. It is said that he embarked upon this trip in order to make the world believe he had no thought of war. But just before his departure a great council was held in his palace at Potsdam, near Berlin, at which council the leaders of the nation, headed by the kaiser, secretly decided upon war. This council took place on the fifth of July, three weeks before the opening of hostilities, and

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is of importance as proving the falseness of Germany's claim that the war was forced upon her.

The moment the statesmen of Europe read the text of the demands made by Austria upon Serbia they knew that one of two things must happen: either the Serbian people would be obliged to give up their freedom, and become vassals of Austria, or a great European war must be fought. It was this knowledge on the part of the statesmen of Europe that made the final days of the month of July, 1914, so momentous. While the people of the world were going quietly about their business, a frightful catastrophe was impending, of which they knew nothing. The lives and property of hundreds of millions of supposedly free and independent human beings were being juggled with by a handful of professional diplomats, acting in secret, planning to send millions of men to their deaths without consulting them in the matter by so much as a single word. Let us hope that in the future quarrels between nations will be settled openly, with the public's knowledge and consent, as they are settled by the people of the United States, acting through their President and elected representatives in Congress. If the great war marks the end of rule by autocracy, it has in all probability also done away with the evils of secret diplomacy.

Serbia, on receiving Austria's demands, did her utmost to satisfy them, and thus preserve peace.

She accepted all the terms and conditions demanded of her except one, which involved the question of her sovereign rights as a nation, and this question she was willing to leave to The Hague Peace Tribunal, or to the great nations of Europe to decide. Austria, however, demanded immediate and absolute submission.

Meanwhile, many notes, telegrams, and appeals were being sent between the capitals of Europe, but Germany, confident in the strength of her army, opposed every offer which might lead to peace. She insisted that the other nations of Europe had nothing whatever to do with a private quarrel between Austria and Serbia, and virtually told the world to keep its hands off, threatening that those who did not do so would have to reckon with her. In spite of all appeals, Austria on July 28, 1914, declared war on Serbia, and proceeded to attack Belgrade.

Russia, deeply concerned with the fate of her Slavic brothers in Serbia, began to prepare for war, and informed Austria that she would take Serbia's part. Germany instantly notified Russia that if she opposed Austria, she would have to face Germany as well. France, Russia's ally, stood ready to go to her aid. England, in no way prepared for war except on the sea, hesitated, hoping until the last moment that a general European conflict might be averted. Her statesmen made numerous proposals for settling the dis-

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pute, but Germany would listen to none of them. She had decided upon war.

Pretending to believe that French airmen had dropped bombs on German cities (which, as was later shown, they had not done) Germany asserted that she had been attacked, and set her armies in motion. On August 1 she declared war on Russia. Her troops at once crossed the frontiers of the neutral state of Luxemburg, and a little later, in spite of her solemn obligations, invaded Belgium. The Belgian Government was informed that if the German armies were permitted to pass through the country unmolested Belgium would suffer no injury, but that if resistance were offered she would be destroyed.

As a neutral state, it was Belgium's duty to refuse passage to German troops. Not to have done so would have been to give up her neutrality and side with Germany. True to her obligations, Belgium heroically resolved to resist the invader. Her king sent word to the kaiser that Belgium would fight for her rights. As a result German troops began to devastate the country with fire and sword, thus committing one of the greatest crimes in history.

England, from the first to the fourth day of August, 1914, had hoped that a conflict might be avoided, or at least be confined to the territories of Austria and Serbia. Even when, on August 3, Germany declared war on France, she still strove

to avoid a general European conflict. But when Germany, in order to attack Russia's ally, France, invaded Belgium, the people of the British Empire rose in wrath and demanded war. England, they said, had given her word to defend Belgium in case of attack, and England's word must be made good. Democratic to the core, the people of this great nation were unwilling to stand by and see a small and peaceful country invaded, crushed, to satisfy Germany's ambitions. When the German chancellor declared in a public address that "necessity knows no law" and that Germany in order to win would "hack her way through" regardless of consequences, when this same chancellor told the British Ambassador that he did not believe England would go to war for the sake of "a scrap of paper," meaning thereby the treaty guaranteeing the neutrality of Belgium, England, on August 4, 1914, declared war on Germany, and the greatest conflict in the world's history was under way.

England, France, and Russia, known as the "Entente" powers, were thus arrayed against Germany and Austria. Italy, although a member of the Triple Alliance, refused to take part in the conflict along with its two other members, since the provisions of that alliance stipulated that it was for defense only, and Italy maintained that Germany and Austria had not been attacked.

CHAPTER III

GERMANY'S WAR PLANS

THE plan of the German military leaders, when the war began, was a simple one, and one that their "great general staff," as the head of the army was called, had worked out to the last detail, as carefully as a railroad official might work out the schedule by which to run his trains. This plan was to attack France by way of Belgium and Luxemburg, with an army so strong as to be irresistible, to capture Paris during the first few weeks of the war and thus render France helpless, and then to turn her forces against Russia.

Germany knew that the Russians, France's allies, would attack her in the East as soon as the armies of the czar were ready to fight, but she believed that the Russian Army would not be ready for many weeks, and by that time she would have beaten France to her knees.

In spite of her careful calculations, however, Germany made three great mistakes at the very beginning of the war, and these mistakes in the long run caused her final defeat.

The first of these mistakes was to think that it would take the Russian armies so long a time to get ready to fight, to mobilize, as it is called.

When an army is mobilized, the men of military age in certain prearranged classes must be gathered at various points on the railroads throughout the country, supplied with uniforms, arms, and equipment of every sort, and then transported, often for very long distances, to the places chosen for attack. With them there must be sent ammunition, food; ambulances, doctors, and nurses for the wounded; artillery of every sort; horses, trucks, airplanes, and countless other things that go to make up the equipment of a modern army. Russia is a very large country, with few railroads, and Germany thought that the tremendous task of mobilizing her army would take much longer than it actually did. She expected, too, that the Austrians would be able to keep the Russians in check until France had been defeated, and then, by means of the splendid system of German military railroads, running from east to west, the armies which had beaten France would be sent to settle with the Russians. This was Germany's first great mistake. Russian armies invaded East Prussia within two weeks after war was declared.

The second mistake that Germany made was to think that the Belgians would sacrifice the honor of their country and allow the German armies to strike a treacherous blow at France unopposed. When the kaiser sent word to King Albert of Belgium that his country would be saved great suffering if he would disregard his

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obligations and permit the Germans to pass through Belgium peaceably, paying for any damage they might do, the gallant Belgian ruler replied that Belgium was neutral territory, that Germany had no right to cross it, and that if she attempted to do so, he would defend the honor of his country to the last. When King Albert made this reply to the kaiser, he knew very well that his little army could never hope to stop the mighty military machine of Germany, but he felt that his subjects would rather die than sacrifice their country's honor, and because of their splendid courage at this critical time the Belgian people will go down in history as having committed one of the sublimest acts of which there is any record. From the moment the first German soldier set foot on Belgian soil, the people fought, suffered, and died with the utmost bravery, and as a result the German drive toward Paris was held back for many days. This failure to estimate the temper of the Belgian people correctly was Germany's second great mistake.

Her third mistake was to suppose that England would stay out of the war. The English people were having trouble at home on account of the Irish question. Some of the Irish wanted home rule, and England was ready to give it to them. Others, however, did not, and insisted upon remaining under British rule. For a time it looked as though a civil war might result. Germany

thought that England was too busy over the Irish question to concern herself with the neutrality of Belgium. But the English were not too busy to remember their obligations. To the glory of England it will always be said that she kept her word. Scarcely had Germany begun her savage attack upon Belgium, when the great British fleet put to sea, ready for action, and English troops began to pour across the Channel to aid the Belgians and French in the defense of their homes. This miscalculation with respect to England was Germany's third great mistake.

Such, in a general way, were Germany's plans at the beginning of the war. Let us now say a few words about the German Army.

It is well known that when the great war broke out Germany possessed the largest, the best-equipped and best-drilled army in the world. Germany has asserted that the war was forced upon her by enemies jealous of her success, that she took up arms to defend her existence. If any evidence were needed to disprove this claim, it would be found in the fact that when the war began Germany was ready for it in every particular, *and no other nation in Europe was.*

Her army, as has been said, was an army of the people. Every man in the German Empire physically able to bear arms was obliged by law to serve his term in the ranks. A similar system existed in France and other continental countries,

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but not in England, which depended for her safety upon her navy. Owing to her great population, Germany at all times had an immense number of troops under arms, while by calling on her older men, who had already received their military training, she could put in the field close to ten million men. Austria, with her large population trained for military service, was not far behind, although her troops were of inferior quality, being largely drawn from Slavic and other provinces that hated the Austrian rule, and would fight only because they were compelled to do so. As for Turkey and Bulgaria, both of which countries later entered the war on Germany's side, each was able to put in the field large numbers of well-trained and efficient troops.

The system of mobilizing the army in Germany was perfectly worked out. Every man had his uniform and equipment ready for him at the military depot in his section. When he was ordered into service he had only to claim his equipment by number, put on his uniform, shoulder his rifle, and join his regiment, ready to fight. Each regiment, division, army corps had its orders, prepared long in advance, and knew exactly where to go and what to do. Nothing was left to chance. Germany had not forgotten that her great general, Field-Marshal von Moltke, who won the war with France in 1870-71, had boasted that when that war broke out he had only to press a button

on his desk and send a telegram, and his armies were ready to move, like some perfectly constructed machine. That the German great general staff, when the war began in 1914, was quite as ready, the first weeks of August amply proved.

But it was not alone in the organization of their army that the Germans showed perfection. Its equipment also was perfect. Not a nation of inventors themselves, the Germans displayed remarkable ingenuity in improving the inventions of others. Thus, among other things, their scientists took up the airplane, invented by Americans, and greatly improved it for military purposes. Germany realized to a far greater extent than did the other nations of Europe the value of the airplane as a weapon of war, and especially as a means of scouting over the battle-field and signaling to gunners miles in the rear the direction and the ranges of the objects at which they were to fire. In the same way one of her scientists, Count von Zeppelin, took up and improved the dirigible balloon, building huge airships as long as an ocean-going liner, shaped like a cigar, and made of silk gas-bags enclosed in a light but rigid framework of aluminum. These balloons, or Zeppelins as they are called, were equipped with powerful gasoline engines and were capable of traveling at high speeds, even against head winds. They were manned by crews of thirty or more, were armed with small cannon, and carried explo-

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sive bombs to be dropped upon ships, cities, or fortifications.

Still another branch of military equipment to which Germany paid great attention was the artillery. Light field-guns, of approximately three inches in diameter, were possessed by all armies; in fact, the 75-millimeter field-gun of the French, familiarly called the "seventy-five," proved to be the best gun of its type in the war, but it was to the perfecting of heavy artillery that Germany devoted special effort. At the great Krupp works at Essen, as well as at the Skoda works in Austria, experiments had been going on for a long time, in the development of mobile heavy howitzers. The howitzer is a short, powerful gun something like a mortar, and belongs to the high-angle type of artillery; that is, it is intended to be fired at a high angle, its shell rising into the air on a lofty curve and dropping upon its target from above. Guns with a low angle of fire, such as the 12-, 14-, and 16-inch guns found on battle-ships, are fired at their targets directly, and the shells from them rise into the air on a very low or flat curve.

There is nothing new in the howitzer, and all armies were equipped with such guns to a moderate extent when the war began, but nobody but the Germans thought of constructing howitzers of huge size that would at the same time be mobile, that is, readily transported at such speed as



Illustration of a biplane flying over a body of water.
Caption text is partially obscured by a finger in the foreground.



A GERMAN ZEPPELIN IN FLIGHT OVER THE NORTH SEA

to form part of the equipment of a marching army. This, however, the Germans and Austrians successfully did, and to the general public these great 42-centimeter and 30.5-centimeter guns seemed one of the marvels of the war. As a matter of fact, they were merely very large howitzers, ranging in caliber up to 16½ inches, so constructed that they could be taken apart and transported in sections on especially designed motor-trucks. These guns had a great range, the largest, or 42-centimeter type, being able to throw a shell weighing approximately a ton, filled with high explosives, over eighteen miles. Very few of the 42-centimeter type guns were built, as they were not, strictly speaking, mobile, and had to be set up on a heavy concrete base requiring several days to prepare. But many of the lesser sizes, approximately 8, 10, and 12 inches in diameter of bore, were made ready, and accompanied the German and Austrian armies on their various campaigns.

The purpose of these guns was as follows: The fortified places that Germany knew would bar her road to France were protected by forts of the Gruson type, consisting of a thick concrete emplacement, above which rose a low curved steel dome resembling the back of a tortoise, and capable of being rotated like the turret of a battle-ship. These land turrets were equipped with guns, and were armored to withstand attack from shells of

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siege guns up to nine inches in diameter. No projectiles of larger size were anticipated, in siege operations. The Germans simply designed guns of larger size and longer range, which could stand off out of harm's way and with a few well-directed shots reduce any fort in the world to a mass of shattered masonry.

Another type of artillery to which the Germans gave much attention was the machine gun. This is of two kinds, the heavy machine gun, mounted on wheels and usually drawn by a horse, and the lighter type, which can be carried, if necessary, by one man. Both consist of a rifle barrel, cooled by water or air to prevent it from becoming overheated, into the breech of which shells are fed with great rapidity by means of a belt or drum. These guns are automatic; that is, the explosion of one shell supplies the power by which the empty cartridge-case is ejected, the new shell forced into place, and fired. Their operation is thus continuous, and once the trigger is pressed, they go on firing of themselves, at the rate of several hundred shots a minute, until their ammunition is exhausted, or the barrel becomes too hot to permit of further use.

Every nation included the machine gun in the equipment of its army, but the Germans, realizing that a few such guns carefully placed can hold off the attacks of an entire regiment, supplied their

men with great numbers of them, and used them with deadly effect until the very end of the war.

These were not all the means that Germany had devised in secret to win the war for which she had been so long preparing. Her chemists had experimented extensively with poisonous gases, which would quickly choke and kill a man when breathed into the lungs. These gases were either to be released in clouds, which the wind would carry into the ranks of the opposing army, or were to be reduced to liquid form and fired in shells, spreading death among the enemy. Still another weapon of war devised by the Germans was the "flame-thrower," an apparatus usually consisting of a cylinder with a short hose attached, to be carried on the back of a man. These cylinders contained an oil which was to be lit and thrown in a flaming stream upon the enemy's ranks.

Neither of these devices was new. The chemists of England, France, and America knew quite as well as did those of Germany how to employ such methods in making war. But the civilized nations of the world had agreed on certain rules of warfare, considering it their duty to render wars as humane as possible, and such methods were held to be unlawful. The Germans, however, believing themselves to be superior to all other races, chosen by God Himself to rule the world, did not feel bound by these rules. Such conven-

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tions were mere "scraps of paper," which they felt they had the right to disregard whenever it suited their convenience to do so.

Even in questions of honor the obligations which bound other nations seemed to mean nothing whatever to the Germans. They were ready to sign any sort of agreement, reserving to themselves the right to break it whenever they saw fit. Thus they broke the treaty agreeing to protect the neutrality of Belgium, and later on, as we shall see, refused to be bound by any of the rules of international law. This fact should be carefully borne in mind, since it ultimately resulted in the United States' entering the war.

In addition to organizing and equipping her army so efficiently, Germany spent a great deal of money upon her navy. Particularly did she develop another American invention, the submersible boat, or submarine. She built larger and more powerful boats of this type than the other navies of the world possessed, and planned to use them in sinking the ships of her enemies in order to offset the fact that her navy was not as yet the most powerful in the world.

The other nations of Europe had also prepared for war, not as Germany had prepared, to conquer the world, but to defend themselves in case they were attacked. Thus France, with only about half the population of Germany, was obliged to maintain a large standing army, and England in order

to protect herself against invasion, followed a naval policy of building two battle-ships to any other nation's one. England maintained no standing army of the people. Military service was not compulsory with her. Her regular army was employed to do police work in India, Egypt, and her other overseas dominions. It was made up of splendid soldiers, among the best in the world, but there were not many of them. In addition, England had a volunteer force not unlike the National Guard of the United States. These troops were called Territorials.

We thus see that Germany, ready to break any convention or treaty she had previously signed if it suited her interests to do so, confident of the invincibility of her army, and convinced that it was her mission under God's will and command to conquer the world, stood at the beginning of August, 1914, an enemy of all mankind.

CHAPTER IV

THE DRIVE THROUGH BELGIUM

THE invasion of Belgium by Germany has been called the greatest crime in history. The kaiser's action in attacking a neutral country was in itself sufficiently criminal, but the treatment accorded the helpless people of that country by the German armies was so cruel, so utterly beyond belief, that at first the world refused to credit it. When the terrible facts at last became fully known, a wave of sympathy and anger swept over the civilized world. Germany had outraged every law of God and man.

Some of the great leaders of military thought in Germany, notably Baron von der Goltz, had written books setting forth the theory that war, if made sufficiently terrible, would not last long. Filled with this devilish doctrine, the Germans tried it first upon the Belgians. The world knew that to treat any self-respecting nation with cruelty could result only in that nation's resisting all the more bravely; but the Germans could not see this, and hence they stopped at no crime, no matter how horrible, in order to terrify their opponents and cause them to lay down their arms. From the moment they crossed the Belgian fron-

tier, they began to indulge in the most unbelievable cruelties. Peaceful villages were burned; old men, women, and children were shot or otherwise murdered by the thousands; prisoners were killed or mutilated, and many other crimes, too terrible even to mention, were committed in the name of German *kultur*.

The first city of any size that the Germans attacked, after they crossed the Belgian frontier at Verviers, was Liège, lying upon the river Meuse. This large town was well protected by a circle of twelve outlying forts of the Gruson type, built of concrete, with disappearing steel turrets. At first the Germans could make no headway against the determined defense of the garrison, and lost a large number of men. Within a few days, however, they brought up their new heavy howitzers, and it required only a few shells, with their tremendous charges of high explosives, to reduce the forts to heaps of ruins. The world looked on in amazement. Never in the history of siege operations had such huge guns been employed. When one of these monster projectiles descended upon a fort on the outskirts of Liège, the force of the explosion was so great that every man in the underground chambers was either killed or wounded. Military observers everywhere realized that in an hour Germany had shown there was not a fortified place in Europe which could be defended successfully against such an attack.

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It took the Germans eleven days to complete the reduction of the defenses of Liège, and the delay greatly upset their plans. Soon, however, the German armies began to spread all over the eastern part of Belgium, pillaging, burning, and murdering as they went. In village after village, town after town, the horrors of war as conducted by the kaiser and his armies were repeated. When the German troops entered a place, orders were given to arrest a certain number of the prominent citizens. If thereafter any resistance was offered, if but a single shot happened to be fired by some outraged inhabitant, the citizens who had been arrested, and who were called hostages, were promptly shot, and in many cases the town or village was burned as well. The German troops, prepared for all emergencies, carried with them small tablets of compressed inflammables, which, when thrown into a house, ensured its destruction. Theft was common everywhere, and was committed by soldiers and officers alike, in spite of the fact that in civilized warfare private property is supposed to be respected. Money, household goods, the gold and silver vessels of the churches, furniture, ornaments, jewelry, everything¹ that could be carried away, was taken and sent back to Germany. Even one of the kaiser's own sons was guilty of this common thievery, looting a handsome château of its priceless tapestries, paintings, and other objects of art and sending them home as

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booty. Later on factories were stripped of their machinery, which was to be set up again in German factories. Heavy fines were imposed upon the Belgian and French towns and villages upon the least provocation. Even the bells of the churches, famous for their chimes, the brass and copper cooking-utensils of the peasants, door-knobs and chandeliers were seized, to be used in making shells, in the manufacture of which much copper and brass is required. No marauding band of savages ever acted with greater brutality. It is no wonder that, remembering the ravages made centuries earlier by the Huns under their famous leader Attila, the world came to call the present-day Germans "Huns." The kaiser had threatened that he would crush Belgium, and he did so with German thoroughness.

The most notable case of destruction was the burning of Louvain. When the Germans entered this large and beautiful city on August 24, some shots were fired at them. It has never been clearly established whether these shots were fired by outraged Belgians trying to protect their homes, or by drunken German soldiers. But the German officers did not wait to find out. After first having a large number of the inhabitants shot, they ordered the place destroyed by fire, and this splendid city was soon little more than a heap of ashes.

The terrible scenes in Louvain were repeated in

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many other places. The German armies swept through Belgium like a raging flood, the soldiers singing their battle-song "*Deutschland über Alles*," which means Germany over everything and everybody. War correspondents who happened to be in the city of Brussels when General von Kluck's army marched through, wrote to their papers that such a magnificent yet terrible spectacle had never before been witnessed. For two days and nights the seemingly endless gray-clad columns marched through the streets—strong, rugged men, shoulder to shoulder, from curb to curb, like some resistless torrent. Behind them rumbled their heavy artillery. At their front flew airplanes, overseeing the line of march. The world stood amazed at this exhibition of Germany's strength.

At first the drive through Belgium met with little opposition. The Belgians fought with the greatest bravery, but they were hopelessly outnumbered. Help was coming from England, but the time was short, and the moving of large bodies of men with their complete equipment, by water, is a long and complicated operation. The bulk of the French Army was far to the east, attempting an invasion of Germany through Alsace-Lorraine. In spite of their heroic resistance the Belgians were brushed aside, the great fortress of Namur, between Liège and the French frontier, fell after a few shots from the German heavy

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howitzers, and the way to Paris was open. Meanwhile, a part of the Belgian Army had retired behind the forts of Antwerp, to the north, and the remainder had retreated westward toward the line of the river Yser, near the border between Belgium and France.

A French army hurriedly sent into Belgium was badly defeated southwest of Namur, at Charleroi, and a little later the French border fortress of Maubeuge was besieged, and fell on September 7, after a determined resistance, before the heavy German artillery. This was the last attempt made by the French to hold steel and concrete forts against the German method of attack. The old theory was that the fortress would protect its garrison; now it was seen that the garrison must protect the fortress, by operating in the open. We shall see a striking example of this later on, at the siege of Verdun.

The French were defeated at Charleroi on August 23. On the same day the British Expeditionary Force, under the command of General (afterward Field-Marshal) Sir John French, first came in contact with the Germans at the Belgian city of Mons.

This force, fresh from England, had been hurriedly assembled, with little time for preparation, but it consisted of British regular troops, among the best-trained soldiers in the world. Their equipment in artillery, except in guns of the light-

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est type, was poor. It was only the advance guard of the British forces that met the Germans at Mons, two army corps, some forty thousand men in all. Opposed to them were three or four times their number of the enemy.

History records no more splendid example of bravery and endurance than that shown by the British troops at the Battle of Mons and during the subsequent terrible retreat. It was impossible, of course, for these men to stop the onslaught of the Germans, but they checked it, held it back day after day, taking a huge toll in lives, and holding each point until their regiments were shot to pieces and their ammunition exhausted.

The army of General von Kluck, which formed the extreme right wing of the German forces, was advancing in a huge semicircle through Belgium and France, driving to the westward in the hope of outflanking the French and British—that is, of getting around and behind them, and thus cutting them off. Had it succeeded in doing this, a great French and British army would have been captured, and Germany might have won the war. French reinforcements, however, were hurrying up from the east, and the task imposed upon the British was to delay von Kluck, and prevent him from outflanking them, until these reinforcements arrived.

No troops in the world ever performed a difficult task better. This “contemptible little army,”

as the kaiser had called it, went through one of the bloodiest retreats in history unconquered and undismayed. From the twenty-third of August to the twenty-sixth, which latter General French called in one of his dispatches "the most critical day," they fought and died, without allowing the Germans either to break through or to outflank them. From Mons through Valenciennes, Cambrai, LeCateau, Marcoing, and St.-Quentin the British retreated, foot by foot, awaiting the reinforcements which were hurrying to their support. All through the latter part of August the Germans drove west and south, toward Paris, with the British and French "digging in" (that is, constructing shallow, temporary trenches), holding their positions with dogged courage, and hoping for the day when they might in their turn attack. To retreat day after day taxes the spirit, the "morale," as it is called, of any army. Only the bravest and most determined troops can endure it. Such troops the Germans found barring their path.

As the unfavorable news came day after day the world began to think that the Germans were invincible, and that the capture of Paris was a matter of but a few weeks, even days. Then came the greatest battle in history, the Battle of the Marne.

CHAPTER V

THE BATTLE OF THE MARNE

THE Battle of the Marne will without doubt be regarded by future generations as the greatest battle of which there is any record in history. It is true that in some of the later battles of the war there were more men engaged on the two sides, and the losses were heavier, but the results of this battle were more important to civilization than those of any other battle that has ever been fought. If the Germans had won it, they would have taken Paris, conquered France, and driven the small British Army (about one hundred and twenty thousand men) into the sea. This accomplished, they might readily have conquered all of Europe. With Europe at their feet, the kaiser's dream of dominating the world might easily have been realized. The United States might even have become a German province, and the civilization of the future have been regulated according to the German idea, by which they were to be the masters, and the other races of the world their slaves. That the Germans did *not* win the Battle of the Marne was due to the heroism of the French, and of their British allies.

As we have seen, the huge and splendidly

equipped German Army, throughout the month of August, drove southwest through Belgium and France toward Paris. After the fall of Namur, the armies of the kaiser crossed the river Aisne, in northern France, and swept irresistibly toward the river Marne. They advanced in many strong columns, of which the most westerly one was that of General von Kluck. Other columns came through Namur, through the neutral state of Luxemburg in the direction of Verdun, through Lorraine, by way of the great German fortress of Metz, and from there south, opposite Nancy and Belfort, to the Swiss border. All of these great armies converged upon Paris. The central ones were under the command of the kaiser's son, the German crown-prince.

General (afterward Marshal) Joffre, the French commander-in-chief, saw at once that his plan to invade Germany by way of Alsace and Lorraine was a failure. The German attack through Belgium came as a surprise. With the bulk of his forces far to the east, Joffre knew that he could not hope to defend Paris. He therefore began to withdraw his troops toward the west, in order to bar the way to the French capital. This operation of moving hundreds of thousands of men a great distance, together with their artillery and other equipment, was a difficult one. While it was under way, the bloody retreat of the English and French continued. Day after day the world

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waited, wondering why General Joffre did not give the word to stand fast, but the French general knew that he was not ready, and continued to order his armies to retreat.

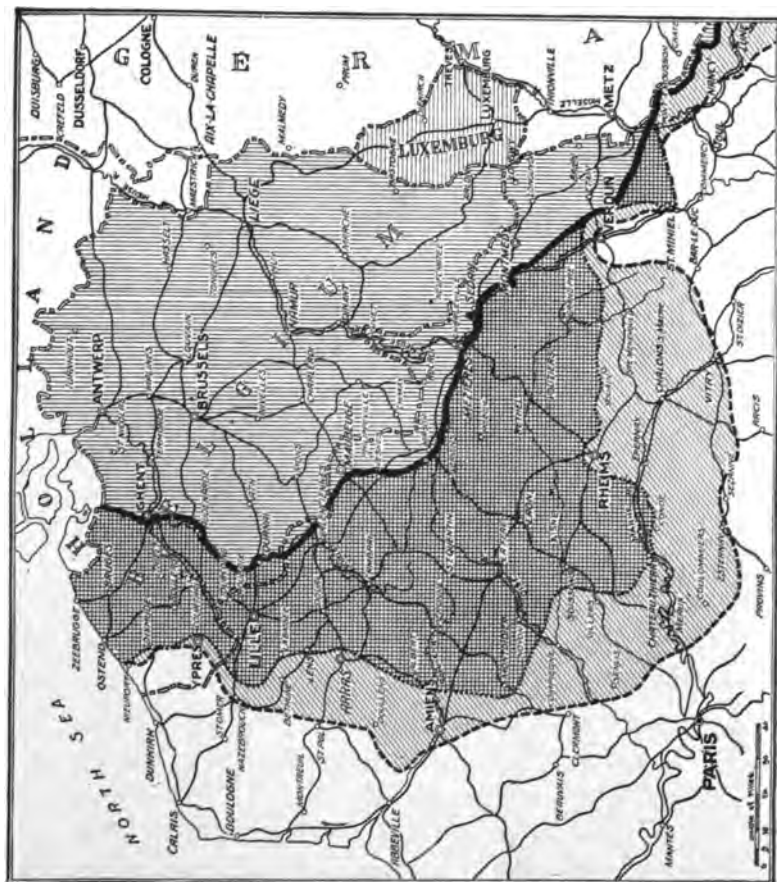
Having crossed the river Aisne, the Germans reached and crossed the river Marne, and Paris was so short a distance away that the thunder of the German guns was heard in its streets. There was no panic, but the government removed its offices to Bordeaux, and many persons left the city. Scarcely any one believed that Paris could be saved.

Meanwhile a very great battle was being fought in the east of France, between the fortresses of Verdun and Nancy. The French, under General Castelnau, retiring after their unsuccessful attempt to invade Germany by way of the Rhine, were heavily attacked by German columns advancing westward through Metz and Strasburg toward Nancy. The French fell back until they reached the line of hills along the river Meuse known as the Grand-Couronne, and here a great battle was fought. Not much was heard of it at the time, because the attention of the world was centered on Paris, but General Castelnau and his men defended their positions with the utmost bravery, with the result that the German flood was held back, and Verdun and Nancy remained in French hands. The victory was won by a very narrow margin; German troops succeeded



By Studio Photo.

JOSEPH JACQUES ÉDOUARD JOFFRE
VICTORIAL 1914



----- EXTREME GERMAN ADVANCE IN 1914
 _____ GERMAN LINE JULY 18, 1914
 ----- GERMAN LINE NOV. 11, 1918
 NATIONAL BOUNDARIES
 ----- RAILROADS

THE WESTERN FRONT

From the greatest advance of the Germans in 1914 to their position when the armistice was signed

in occupying one of the outlying forts of Verdun, crossing the Meuse south of that city at a place called St.-Mihiel, of which we shall hear more, later. But here they were stopped, and the kaiser, who came to witness the fall of Nancy, was forced to see his troops thrown back in defeat, in spite of their bravery. Had Verdun and Nancy fallen, the Battle of the Marne could in all probability never have been won. In any other war this fighting along the Grand-Couronne would have ranked as an operation of the first magnitude, but although there were more men engaged than there were at Waterloo, it was scarcely noticed, owing to the still greater events taking place in the vicinity of Paris.

General von Kluck's army, as has been said, was the furthest west of all the German forces. The direction of his advance, toward the southwest, was such as to take him to a point west of Paris. It had been the hope of the German leaders to get around the left flank of the Allied armies, and crush them in upon that city. Von Kluck's advance was more rapid than that of the German center, under General von Bülow, to the left of him, and early in September he reached a point less than twenty miles from Paris, and almost within sight of its outlying forts. Suddenly, to the astonishment of every one, von Kluck swung his forces toward the southeast, and began to march directly across the front of the

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defenses of Paris in the direction of Meaux.

This manœuver has been variously explained. By some it is contended that having got "out of touch," as it is called, with von Bülow's armies to the east, von Kluck had to move eastward and thus close up the gap. By others it is held that the purpose of the manœuver, since the Allies could not be outflanked, was to drive a wedge between the French to the north of Paris, and that city, thus cutting them off from their base. It was in any event a dangerous move, as it exposed von Kluck's right flank to attack by the British and French forces on the west. There is no doubt that the German general staff, which ordered the movement, greatly underestimated the strength of the British and French at this point. Their armies, concealed in the woods, had escaped observation by the German aircraft. General von Kluck's change of front gave General Joffre, the French commander-in-chief, the opportunity for which he had been waiting.

To understand thoroughly the events which now followed, one must bear several points in mind. In the first place, the Allies had up to now been greatly outnumbered. They also lacked heavy artillery, and were worn out by their long and grueling retreat. Soldiers who fall back day after day inevitably become discouraged. The Germans, on the other hand, were flushed with victory. Paris seemed within their grasp.

There were, however, some reinforcements available which General Joffre had been gathering during the final days of August. An army of considerable size, made up of the French troops in the west of France, had been assembled at Amiens, under the command of General Manoury. These troops, lying to the west of von Kluck's line of advance, threatened his flank. Another force of considerable size had been gathered within the fortifications of Paris itself, in order to defend the city. They were under the command of General Gallieni, the military governor of the French capital.

The French troops to the northeast of Paris were commanded by General Foch, who was then but little known outside his own country, although he was destined to become the commander-in-chief of all the Allied forces and a Marshal of France. His men were directly opposite the armies of General von Bülow, commanding the German right-center.

On September 4, General Joffre was ready to strike, and issued his famous series of orders which culminated in an appeal to the French armies to die where they stood rather than yield another foot of French soil. The armies of the Republic, and their British allies, threw themselves upon the foe with indescribable courage, determined to win a victory or die in the attempt.

The Germans learned too late of the presence

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of General Manoury's army on their right. Scarcely had von Kluck turned to the southeast, thus exposing his flank, when Manoury's army, and the British under General Sir John French, fell upon him. At the same time General Gallieni ordered into service every taxicab and motor-truck in Paris, and loading the garrison of the city upon them sent them at full speed to the front. General von Kluck's armies, under this unexpected onslaught, fell back in retreat, thus uncovering the flank of von Bülow's forces on their left. General Foch, perceiving this exposure of von Bülow's flank, also attacked, at the same time sending to General Joffre his famous message, that his left wing was in confusion, his right crushed, and that he was therefore attacking with his center. And attack he did, not only upon von Bülow's right flank, but later also upon his left, where a gap existed between the armies of von Bülow and of von Hausen, further to the east. The whole right wing of the German army of invasion was thrown into confusion and began a rapid retreat toward the river Marne, thus obliging the German forces further east, commanded by the crown-prince, also to fall back, in order to preserve their line of front.

Had the French and British been able to take full advantage of their victory, had they been able to pursue the beaten Germans as they would have liked, the retreat of the latter across the river

Marne might have been turned into a disastrous rout. But they were too exhausted to press their victory to the utmost. Many thousands of Germans were killed or captured as they fled northward, but their retreat was conducted with great skill, and they succeeded in withdrawing the bulk of their forces across the Marne, together with their heavy artillery, and still retreating, reached and crossed the river Aisne. Here, on the north bank of that river, they took refuge in a deep and powerful system of trenches, which had been constructed in anticipation of just such an emergency. The German armies to the east, retiring so as to keep in line with those to the west, swung backward across the whole of northern France, like a great arm pivoted upon the French fortress of Verdun. As a result, the victory of the Marne left the Germans powerfully entrenched from Verdun westward straight across the northern part of France, to a point beyond the city of Soissons. The British and French made several attempts to cross the Aisne and drive the Germans from their trenches, but they were not in sufficient force, and lacked the heavy guns necessary for such work, and although the fighting here, called the Battle of the Aisne, was fierce and bloody, it did not result in driving the Germans back any further, and for nearly four years, with comparatively few changes, the opposing lines remained as they then stood.

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It has been pointed out in a previous chapter that Germany's three great mistakes at the beginning of the war were her failure to estimate correctly the temper of the Belgians, her belief that Russia could not mobilize her forces quickly, and her confidence that England would remain neutral. We can now see more clearly the results of these mistakes. In the first place the resistance of the Belgians delayed the German advance long enough to permit the British to send an army to France. England came in, and with her expeditionary force of some hundred and twenty thousand men held back the great German drive toward Paris until General Joffre was able to bring up his reinforcements, and later contributed greatly to the victory of the Marne. In fact, many persons believe that without England's aid that victory could never have been won. As for Russia, her quick invasion of East Prussia forced the Germans to send to their eastern front many men who might otherwise have been used in France, and it is possible had they been there, the result at the Marne might have been different.

Further, the entrance of England into the conflict brought with it a power which in the long run did more to bring about Germany's ultimate defeat than any other one thing. This power was the British Navy. Ready for action the day war was declared, the British fleet at once began a blockade of the German coast. Powerful squad-

rons took positions in the North Sea for the purpose of preventing either German merchantmen or German war-ships from entering or leaving the great ports of Hamburg, Bremen, or the naval bases at the entrance to the Kiel Canal (which crosses the peninsula on which Denmark lies, by way of the province of Schleswig-Holstein, and thus connects the North and Baltic seas). German commerce by sea instantly ceased, and, with trifling exceptions, was never renewed until the close of the war. At the same time, the German war-ships were shut up in their harbors and could not come out without offering battle to superior forces. Meanwhile, the seas were open to the Allies, and millions of men, hundreds of millions of dollars' worth of food and supplies, were transported between England, France, and other parts of the world. Without the British Navy, ably assisted by French and Italian, and later on by American fleets, the Allies could not have won the war.

It is not too much to say, then, that Germany's three great mistakes at the very beginning of the war caused her final defeat.

CHAPTER VI

THE RACE FOR THE CHANNEL PORTS

AS soon as the Battle of the Marne was over, the course of the great conflict swept rapidly to the north. The strong German battle-line across France ended west of Soissons, and south of the city of Noyon. The German right flank therefore was left, as military men call it, "in the air," that is, it was unprotected, and if the British and French could get around the end of that line, they could outflank the enemy and attack them in the rear. Realizing this, General Joffre at once sent a force northward under the command of General de Maud'huy, who with a mixed army of French colonial troops from northern Africa, called Senegalese and Turcos, and some French volunteers called Territorials, reached Arras, about half-way between Noyon and the North Sea.

The German leaders, fully aware of the danger which threatened them, and determined in turn to do to the French exactly what the French were trying to do to them, that is, outflank them, also rushed powerful forces toward the north. Troops of the famous Prussian Guard Corps, and picked regiments of Bavarians did their utmost, in a

series of terrific attacks, to break through the French lines about Arras, but General de Maud'huy, with inferior forces, held them back, and the attacks failed. By the middle of October the French were entrenched securely as far north as Béthune, near the Belgian border, and the Allies' flank was for the time being safe. From Béthune northward to the sea stood the British and Belgians.

This series of operations has been called the race for the channel ports, that is, the ports of Dunkirk, Calais, and Havre, on the English Channel in northern France. The Germans wanted these ports for several reasons. In the first place their possession would have prevented the British from using the short cross-channel route to send men and supplies to France. To reinforce and supply their armies by a circuitous sea trip to ports on the east coast of France would have been both difficult and dangerous. In the second place the Germans wanted these ports so that they might attack England. The English coast is within the range of modern guns, at Calais. In the third place the Germans intended, if they could get these ports, to keep them permanently. The kaiser wanted easier access to the sea. It irked him to think that the English Channel, the great waterway between the North Sea and the Atlantic, was dominated by his enemies the British. Hence the German armies made frantic ef-

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forts to break, first the French and later on the British and Belgian lines which barred their way to the coast.

Failing to break the French line from Arras to Béthune, the Germans now turned their attention to the Belgians and British. Having made secure their hold on the large French manufacturing city of Lille, close to the Belgian border, and having also now in their grasp the great iron- and coal-fields of Belgium and northern France, lying about Lens, they struck a violent blow at the Belgian Army along the river Yser, which empties into the North Sea. The operation failed. Although the Germans succeeded in crossing the river, and reaching Nieuport, they got no further. When, by opening the dikes along the Yser River and its canals, the Belgians flooded the country, the Germans found themselves operating in a territory that was impassable. They therefore shifted their attacks to a point further south, around the famous Belgian city of Ypres.

Two separate and determined attempts were made to break the British line at this point, the first lasting from October 20 to November 2, and the second from November 3 until November 17. For a whole month the thin British line held its own against furious attacks by superior numbers. When the earlier attacks failed, the kaiser brought up his crack troops, the famous Prussian Guard, and came himself to witness their victory, only to

see them in turn fall back, beaten, before the gallant British defense. The fighting was of the most bitter sort; a single English division, the 7th, lost over 350 out of its 400 officers, and 8000 out of its 12,000 men. Great as were the English losses, however, those of the Germans were greater. It is estimated that the attempt to take Ypres cost them 150,000 men.

No troops in the world ever fought more bravely than did the British, and the French who came to their aid, about Ypres. Many of these men belonged to the "contemptible little army" which had undergone the terrible retreat from Mons, and with their bodies they formed a living barrier which the Germans were unable to pass. Some were English Territorials, men fresh from the shop and farm, who had never seen a battle up to now, but had been hastily brought across the Channel, to stand in shallow, mud-filled trenches, without adequate artillery protection, and resist the attacks of the flower of the German Army, equipped with every device that science could provide. With the coolness of veterans they stuck to their positions, mowing down the Germans with rifle and machine-gun fire as the latter came on in dense masses, using their favorite close formation. It is said that at one point in the battle, with his last reserves gone, General French, the British commander, was about to order his men to fall back, and was prevented from doing so only by

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the assurances of the general in command of the French forces on his right that reinforcements were on the way. This general, of whom we have heard before, was Ferdinand Foch, who did such brilliant work at the Battle of the Marne, and who was later to rise to the supreme command of all the Allied forces.

Future generations, with complete information as to the number of men engaged on both sides in these two great battles, will wonder that the Germans failed to break through; but it should be remembered that battles are not won by superior numbers but by the courage and faith of the men on the firing-line, and these English, French, and Belgian soldiers were inspired by a divine spirit of sacrifice, based on the knowledge that they fought in a just cause, which spirit the mechanically drilled German troops lacked. The saving of Paris and the channel ports, and with them the civilization of the world, was a triumph of spiritual courage over brute force. Under the influence of such courage the commonest soldier becomes a hero, and, as was the case with the Greeks under Leonidas at the Battle of Thermopylæ, a handful of men may hold back an army.

The close of the terrible winter of 1914-15 found the opposing forces locked in what now came to be known as trench warfare, on a line nearly four hundred miles long, extending from the North Sea to the borders of Switzerland.

CHAPTER VII

OTHER EVENTS IN THE EARLY PART OF THE WAR

DURING the drive of the Germans through Belgium, as has been seen, a part of the Belgian Army retired behind the forts of Antwerp. In October, 1914, the Germans laid siege to the city and captured it.

Like Liège and Namur, Antwerp was defended by rings of outlying forts, and was considered one of the strongest fortresses in Europe. For some reason the lesson of the German heavy howitzers seemed not yet to have been perfectly grasped, for the English decided that Antwerp could be held, and sent a force of naval guns and gunners to assist the Belgians in its defense. The siege was short and decisive. The German howitzers soon battered the outlying forts into submission, after which the guns were moved up and a bombardment of the city itself was begun. With their buildings falling about their ears, the Belgians had to surrender, although the greater part of the garrison managed to escape, and rejoin their comrades along the Yser. Some, however, together with the English naval forces, retreated into Holland, and were interned; that is, held virtually as

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prisoners until the end of the war. This is the customary procedure, under the rules of warfare, when fighting men of any nation are forced to take refuge in a neutral country.

The siege of Antwerp is notable because it was here that the first instance of the use of Zeppelin airships in bombarding cities occurred. During the siege the Germans sent Zeppelins over the city proper, not the forts, and dropped a number of bombs upon the place. A hospital and several other buildings were destroyed, and many persons, non-combatants, were killed or wounded. Had the Germans dropped these bombs upon the forts, it would have been understandable, although even on this point there was some disagreement, under international law, but to wreck hospitals, kill helpless non-combatants, was nothing but wilful murder, without military advantage, and the world so denounced it. It was not long, however, before every one began to realize that Germany intended to carry on the war without any regard for international law whatever, and the bombing of cities, hospitals, and unfortified places generally soon became a matter of almost daily occurrence.

While events of such tremendous importance were taking place in Europe, another nation entered the war, on the side of Germany and Austria. This nation was Turkey.

The Turkish Empire was formed by certain wandering tribes of Asia known as Osmanli (from

the name of one of their chiefs, Osman), who were first heard of in the Eleventh Century. Followers of the Prophet Mohammed, they waged cruel war on the Christian nations of southeastern Europe, and finally, under their leader Mohammed II in the year 1453, captured the city of Constantinople, the old Byzantium, and thus ended the power of the Eastern Roman Empire. Crossing the Dardanelles, this cruel and fanatical race extended its conquests northward until it had brought all of the Balkan Peninsula under its control. Gradually, as later on the sultan's power declined, the Turks were forced to give up their hold on the several Balkan states, and Serbia, Rumania, Bulgaria, and finally Greece gained their independence. Had it not been for the jealousies of the great European powers, as shown in a preceding chapter, the Turks would long ago have been completely driven out of Europe. All this intricate and underground diplomatic wire-pulling constitutes a history in itself; suffice it to say that it remained for Germany, a supposedly Christian nation, to ally herself with the Turks in order to war on other Christian nations.

A new party had been formed in Turkey some years before the opening of the great war, called the Young Turks, led by Enver Bey, an ambitious and unscrupulous politician who had received his education in Germany. Enver Bey succeeded in deposing the aged sultan, Abdul Hamid II, and

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although a new sultan was installed, he had little or no power, and the Young Turks proceeded to run the government as they saw fit. Ever since the visit of the kaiser to Constantinople, when he proclaimed himself the protector of all followers of the Prophet, German influence in Turkey had been growing stronger. The Turkish Army was equipped with artillery from the great Krupp works in Germany, and German officers came in large numbers to train its troops. A treaty between Germany and Turkey probably existed, although the world did not know of it, by which the latter country was promised great rewards in case of a successful war. Egypt had once belonged to the sultan, and still was nominally under his control, although actually governed by England. It would be easy, the kaiser's agents pointed out to the ambitious Enver Bey and his associates, for the sultan, who was also the head of the Mohammedan Church, to declare a jihad (or holy war, of the Mohammedans upon the Christians), whereupon the millions of followers of the Prophet in Egypt, India, and elsewhere would at once rise in revolt against their English masters and slaughter them. This would enable Turkey to secure control of Egypt, and share with Germany the conquest of India and the Far East. In all this Germany was of course merely using Turkey as a tool, to further her own ends, but Enver and his associates, filled with pride at the thought of

being made an ally of the powerful German kaiser, fell into the trap and dragged their unhappy country along with them.

At the outbreak of the war, before Turkey entered it, two German war-ships, the *Goeben*, a battle-cruiser, and the lighter cruiser *Breslau*, were on duty in the Mediterranean. Cleverly eluding the French and British war-ships that tried to capture them, they took refuge in the Dardanelles. Here they should have been interned, by the rules of war, as has been explained, but to get around this the German Government sold them to the sultan. Whether any sale really took place is doubtful, but both the vessels and their crews were added to the Turkish Navy. This trick, against which the Allies in vain protested, was soon followed by Turkey's entrance into the war.

England, realizing the danger which now threatened her power in the East, at once began to take steps to prevent Turkey from carrying out Germany's schemes. A small force of English and Indian troops under General Townshend was sent from India to Basra, at the head of the Persian Gulf. This city is the ancient Bassora, famous in the Arabian Nights as the place from which Sindbad the Sailor started on so many of his voyages. General Townshend's forces began a slow and difficult advance northward up the Tigris River toward the ancient city of Bagdad, to which, we must remember, the Germans had been constructing

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their great Berlin-to-Bagdad railroad. The English undertook their advance in order to gain possession of the terminus of this road at Bagdad. There were, however, uncompleted sections of it north of that city. We shall hear more, later, of this advance up the Tigris, known as the Mesopotamian Campaign.

At the same time England proceeded to set aside the nominal ruler of Egypt, called the khedive, and to assume the actual governing of that country herself. Heretofore she had acted only in an advisory capacity, but the grave danger which threatened the Suez Canal made her action imperative. She also began to collect at Cairo, and along the line of the canal, troops from Australia and New Zealand as well as from India, in order to protect both the waterway and Egypt itself from the Turks. It was necessary to England that the Suez Canal should remain open. Many thousands of men from her Eastern possessions, as well as an enormous amount of commerce, passed through this canal. It was the great highway between Europe and the East, and if Germany could have closed it, she would have dealt England a severe blow. A campaign having this as its purpose was already under way. A Turkish army, led by German officers, was advancing along the railroad from Aleppo, by way of Damascus and Jerusalem, toward the stretch of sandy desert country which lies to the east of the canal, and German engineers

were preparing to construct a railway across this desert, and to make provision to supply the advancing Turkish army with water.

Germany's attempts to start, through the sultan, a holy war against the Christians was a failure. The followers of the Prophet in India and Egypt, in spite of the efforts of the kaiser's secret emissaries, refused to turn against the English, who had governed them justly and well. The Arabians under Turkish rule, who inhabited the country east of the Suez Canal and south of Palestine, not only refused to fight against the English but actually started a revolution of their own against the misrule of the sultan, through which revolution they later gained their independence.

One of the great outstanding features of the war at this time was the way in which the people of England's overseas dominions rallied to her support. Germany had supposed, among her other mistakes, that Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, India, would all turn against Great Britain as soon as war was declared. Unable to hold their own colonies in Africa and elsewhere except by force, the Germans thought that the same thing was true of England, and could not understand that the British Empire was bound together by ties of loyalty and love, the result of England's splendidly free, just, and democratic form of government. Throughout the entire war the men from Canada, Australia, New Zealand,

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South Africa, and India fought as devotedly, and contributed their money as loyally, as did those of England itself, and the great princes of India vied with one another in their efforts to show their devotion to the British cause.

In Africa a great conflict began, having as its purpose the conquest of the German African colonies. The people of England's possessions in South Africa were many of them Boers, of Dutch descent, who had been beaten by the British in a long war some years earlier, and it might have been expected that these men would seize the opportunity now presented to turn against the English, but with a few exceptions the South Africans remained true to Great Britain, and began, under the leadership of the former Boer generals Smuts and Botha, a long and arduous campaign against the Germans. Other campaigns were started by the English, French, Belgians, and Portuguese (who later entered the war on the side of the Allies), and while the great conflict was going on in Europe bands of native troops under German officers were being tracked through hundreds of miles of jungle in German East Africa, Southwest Africa, Togoland, and Kamerun.

At the same time events of great importance were taking place in the Far East. Germany, envious because England and France controlled trading-ports in China, had determined some years earlier to secure possession of Chinese territory

herself. Consequently, when, several years before the war, two German missionaries were killed in China, she used this as a pretext to demand compensation from the Chinese Government in the form of certain concessions, among which were a grant of land on the Shan-tung Peninsula, including the port of Tsing-Tau on Kiao-chau Bay. Here she spent much money in improving the port, building a German city, and constructing railroads into the interior. Beneath the guns of Tsing-Tau a part of the German Pacific fleet had taken refuge when the war broke out.

Japan, England's ally, at once proceeded to lay siege to Tsing-Tau. Her troops, accompanied by a small force of British, began a campaign of many weeks, conducted with the utmost gallantry, at the end of which Tsing-Tau and the surrounding territory were captured. When, at about the same time, the Caroline, Samoan, and other Pacific islands held by Germany were occupied by the Japanese and the Australians, Germany's last colonial possessions in the East were lost to her.

At sea many stirring events were taking place. As has been previously pointed out, Germany depended upon her fleet of submarines to offset the difference in power between her navy and that of England. The English had, when the war broke out, more under-water boats than the Germans, but they were unable to make any very effective use of them, because there were no German ships

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at sea to be attacked. The British ships, on the contrary, were constantly exposed to such attack, owing to the blockade they were maintaining against the German coast, and the patrolling-operations made necessary by the steady stream of British vessels crossing the Channel to carry troops and supplies to France. Hence there were many opportunities afforded the Germans to use their submarines, and they took prompt advantage of these opportunities. On September 22, 1914, less than a month after the beginning of the war, three large, although old-fashioned, British armored cruisers were sunk, within a few moments of one another, off the coast of Holland. They were the *Aboukir*, the *Cressy*, and the *Hogue*, and with them fifteen hundred officers and men were lost.

The *Aboukir* was torpedoed first, and when the other two ships went to the rescue of her drowning crew, they were in turn sent to the bottom. As a result of this disaster, orders were issued by the British Admiralty that in future no war-ship was to go to the assistance of another when the latter had been torpedoed, on account of the danger of being herself sunk. Many persons began to think, when the news of this engagement became known, that the Germans would soon be successful in sinking a large part of the British Navy, but steps were at once taken to protect the English battle-ships and battle-cruisers, while the work of

blockading and patrolling the German coast was left to light cruisers and torpedo-boat destroyers, whose speed protected them from torpedo attack. The U-boats, as they came to be called from the German name *Unterseeboote* (undersea boats), were able to make only about fourteen knots while traveling on the surface under their oil-engines, and about eight while using their electric storage-batteries, when submerged. There were other losses of war-ships on both sides, from torpedo attack, as the war went on, but they were never serious enough to be an important factor in the operations by sea.

Other naval engagements of considerable importance occurred early in the war. A small British squadron under Admiral Cradock was stationed in the Pacific. There was also in the Pacific a squadron of fast German cruisers under Admiral von Spee, armed for the most part with 8-inch guns in their main batteries. All of the British ships except the flagship *Good Hope* carried 6-inch guns, the *Good Hope* mounting 9.2-inch guns in her main battery. The two squadrons met in November off the coast of Chile, and the English were defeated, the *Good Hope* and another vessel, the *Monmouth*, being sunk with all on board. The superior speed of the German vessels enabled them to lie off out of range of the British 6-inch guns, while able to make full use of their 8-inch batteries. This naval disaster stirred all England,

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and a fast and powerful battle-cruiser squadron under the command of Vice-Admiral Sturdee was sent out to find the German fleet. The opposing forces met off the Falkland Islands, in the south Atlantic, von Spee having taken his vessels around the Horn. The British were at anchor in the harbor of Port William (Stanley Harbor) when the Germans came up, and it is supposed that the latter, who were searching for the old English battle-ship *Canopus*, known to be in that vicinity, were not aware of the presence of the other English ships. The result of the battle was never for a moment doubtful. The British, with their 12-inch guns, pounded the German ships to pieces in a short time, and sent them to the bottom, with the exception of one light cruiser, the *Dresden*, which fled around the Horn and took refuge in a port of the island of Juan Fernandez, where she was later destroyed.

In European waters there had been, in addition to the attack on the three cruisers mentioned above, a smart engagement in the Bight of Heligoland, as the waters about that island fortress off the German coast are called, in which two small German cruisers and several torpedo-boat destroyers were sunk. The great fleets, however, were not destined to meet for nearly two years.

On their eastern frontier, in East Prussia, the Germans in the autumn of 1914 won a brilliant victory. The Russian army under General Ren-

nenkampf, advancing almost unopposed along the shores of the Baltic, sent the German population flying westward in terror, and threatened the fortress of Königsberg. The rumors brought to Berlin by the refugees caused great alarm. In this crisis the kaiser turned to one of his retired officers, General von Hindenburg, with whom he had quarreled some years before. Von Hindenburg was especially familiar with the East Prussian country, and soon proved that in placing him in command the kaiser had made a wise choice. Waiting until he had received reinforcements, he so manœuvered his forces as to secure a position between General Rennenkampf's army and another Russian force moving up from the south, and then attacked and beat them in detail. Rennenkampf, who should have come up to the assistance of the Russians advancing from the south, failed to do so; there have been rumors of treachery on his part, but whether they were true or not, von Hindenburg gained a decisive victory over two armies which, if they had properly supported each other, would have outnumbered him. These two battles, called the battles of Tannenburg and Allenstein, cost the Russians over a hundred thousand men, and sent them flying back across the frontier in disorder.

As a result of these victories, General von Hindenburg, and General von Ludendorff, who acted as his chief of staff, became very popular in Ger-

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many. A great wooden statue of von Hindenburg was later on erected in Berlin, and the people eagerly paid high prices for the privilege of driving into it nails made of iron, silver, or gold, the intention being thus to cover the figure completely with metal.

Later victories in the East so increased von Hindenburg's fame that he became the idol of the German public, and he was ultimately made the head of the great German general staff, but not before von Moltke, who lost the Battle of the Marne, had given way to von Falkenhayn, who in turn was deposed because he lost the Battle of Verdun. Von Hindenburg and his chief of staff, von Ludendorff, finally rose to become the military dictators of Germany, until they, too, went down in defeat, before the supreme genius of Marshal Ferdinand Foch.

There were other engagements in the East during the autumn and winter of 1914, notably the capture by the Germans of the strong Russian fortress of Łódź, situated to the west of, and protecting, the city of Warsaw, in Russian Poland. In their first attempts upon Łódź the Germans suffered a severe check, being driven back with very heavy losses in killed, wounded, and prisoners. Later, however, they brought up their heavy howitzers and began a siege of the place. The powerful steel and concrete forts which surrounded Łódź were as useless before the heavy German

guns as had been those of Antwerp and Liège. In a few days the place capitulated, the Russians realizing the impossibility of holding it, and as a result the Russian armies fell back upon Warsaw.

In the Balkan States, where the war began, the Austrian Army captured Belgrade without much difficulty early in the war, in spite of brave resistance on the part of the Serbians, but they did not hold it long. While advancing south toward the city of Nish (situated upon the Berlin-to-Bagdad railroad not far from where that road leaves Serbian territory and enters Bulgaria), the Austrian forces were suddenly attacked by the Serbians and driven in the greatest confusion back across the Danube.

England, as time went on, began to maintain a more and more strict blockade of the German coast. No German merchant ships were at sea, except a few in the Baltic. It was in accordance with the rules of war that the Allies should prevent any supplies from reaching Germany that would help her armies to win the war. Such supplies are called contraband, and if vessels carrying them attempt to enter a blockaded port they are subject to capture. For example, Germany does not produce either copper or cotton, yet she needed great quantities of both, the copper for use in making cartridges and shells, the cotton for making guncotton, which is the base of modern smokeless powder. England refused to allow any

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neutral vessels to take contraband articles into German ports. She also refused to allow the passage of food-stuffs intended for use by the German armies, and it soon became apparent that any foods entering Germany might either go to her army direct, or take the place of foods produced at home which had already been sent to the front. Therefore, it was not long before all food-stuffs were declared contraband, and their shipment to Germany forbidden.

In spite of these restrictions, however, immense quantities of contraband reached Germany by way of Holland, Denmark, and the other neutral states of Europe. England could not prevent merchants in the United States from shipping cotton and grain to Holland, whence they soon found their way across the border into Germany. During the first two years of the war the importations of food-stuffs, cotton, metals, rubber, and a variety of other articles into the neutral states of Europe reached unheard-of proportions.

The initial blockade instituted by England so angered the Germans that they at once decided upon a move which was contrary to all recognized rules of warfare. They sent out their submarines with orders to sink at sight any vessels, whether Allied or neutral, which attempted to enter British or French ports. Certain areas about the British Isles and the coast of France were declared by them to be war zones, forbidden waters, and they

sent to the bottom all vessels that attempted to cross them. In this action by the German Government may be found one of the fundamental problems of the war. International law, seeking to protect the non-combatant, had ruled that a nation at war has the right to stop and capture vessels carrying contraband, but it was especially provided that these vessels must first be searched, in order to determine whether or not there was contraband aboard. Then, if for any reason the captured vessel could not be taken into port, her captors were permitted to sink her, provided they had first used all necessary precautions to safeguard the lives and property of her crew. The German submarines, however, carried too few men safely to attempt the search of a large merchant ship, and they could not take a vessel into port, even if they could capture her, because of the British blockade. Further, if they sank a captured vessel because of their inability to take her into port, they were far too small to provide any refuge for her crew. Hence they began to sink, without either search to determine whether or not there was contraband aboard, or provision for the safety of their crews, all vessels they chanced to meet, and the unfortunate sailors, their personal belongings at the bottom of the sea, were forced to take their chances in open boats, often long distances from shore, without the slightest assurance that they would ever reach land in safety. This

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brutal and illegal policy on Germany's part outraged the civilized world, and ultimately was the cause of the United States' entering the war.

In striking contrast to this action on the part of the German submarines was the conduct of the few German cruisers that happened to be at sea when war was declared. Of these the most famous was the *Emden*, a small but very fast cruiser which proved for months the terror of the eastern seas. Her exploits would in themselves fill a volume, but although she sank many millions of dollars' worth of shipping, there is no record of her having failed to make adequate provision for the lives of the crews manning the vessels she sank. After a spectacular career of three months she was sunk by the Australian cruiser *Sydney* while lying in harbor at the Cocos Islands, in the Indian Ocean, in November, 1914. Her crew fought honorably and well, and were nearly all killed. Captain von Müller, who commanded the vessel, was captured, and the English treated him with great respect, as a brave and honorable foe, a respect they were far from feeling for the commanders of the German submarines.

In January, 1915, another engagement was fought, this time in the North Sea. A small squadron of German battle-cruisers suddenly appeared off the English coast and began to bombard some watering-places, killing a number of civilians. There was no military advantage to be gained by

doing this, and it earned for the German naval men the contemptuous title of "baby-killers." A British battle-cruiser squadron was advised of the presence of the German ships, and pursued them. A running fight ensued, at great ranges, hits being made at distances of over ten miles. One of the German battle-cruisers, the *Blücher*, being slower than her companions, was overtaken and sunk with heavy loss of life. The others escaped and returned to their bases.

Such, in a general way, were the conditions on land and sea when the campaign of 1915 began.

CHAPTER VIII

TRENCH AND OTHER WARFARE IN THE YEAR 1915

AS we have seen, when the German armies retreated across the river Aisne after the Battle of the Marne, they took refuge in a system of trenches which had been prepared for them while they were making their great drive on Paris. The German general staff did not expect that their armies would ever use these trenches, since they looked for victory, not defeat, but being very careful, they made ready for any emergency.

Trenches were not a new thing in warfare. They had been used, especially in the sieges of cities, for hundreds of years. But it remained for the Germans to develop them to the point of greatest efficiency.

Their trenches along the Aisne, and later along the entire front from Switzerland to the North Sea, were not merely shallow ditches in which a man might stand to secure protection from rifle fire. On the contrary they were constructed with the greatest care, and upon the most scientific principles, and as time went on they came to be fortresses of the most impregnable character.

In the first place the trench was dug, not in a

straight line but in a series of zigzags, so that if it happened to be entered at any one point, the attacking forces could not shoot along the trench, but would be obliged to advance around continuous shoulders, behind which the defenders might take refuge. Also, where the nature of the ground permitted, the trenches were dug two and even three stories deep, in the form of great underground cellars, or dugouts, into which the troops holding them might retire in safety during a bombardment. Where the dugouts were not so deep, their roofs were made of steel and concrete, or heavy timbers covered with earth and bags of sand. In some cases they were lined with concrete, floored like the rooms of a house, lighted by electricity, and furnished with beds and other household articles taken from the houses and châteaux near by. When a bombardment started, the German troops retired to the safety of their dugouts and only the heaviest shells could reach them.

In front of the trenches was row after row of very heavy barbed wire, through which the enemy could not pass, while to the rear led deep communicating trenches, along which food, ammunition, and other supplies were brought up under cover of darkness. Later on in the development of trench warfare, small round concrete and steel forts, called "pill-boxes," were constructed by the Germans. These "pill-boxes" contained ma-

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chine guns, and were proof against anything except a direct hit by a shell of large caliber. Concealed as they were by underbrush, or earth, it was extremely difficult to locate them, or to hit them by cannon-fire at a range of several miles. The British lost many men in Flanders during the autumn of 1917, in attacking this form of defenses, but in spite of their losses the attacking troops would rush forward in open formation until some member of the party was able to throw a bomb through one of the ports or openings provided for the machine guns, thus killing every one inside.

It has been seen that when the war began the German Army was the only one which was adequately provided with heavy artillery. The Allies at once took steps to supply their deficiencies in this respect, but the construction of great guns of the howitzer type requires much time, and it was nearly two years before they were able to match their opponents gun for gun.

Trench warfare brought about radical changes in the types of shells used, even by the light field-pieces. In the wars of the past shrapnel had been regarded as the most effective form of shell which could be used against an opposing army. A shrapnel shell is hollow, and inside it are placed hundreds, and in the case of the large sizes thousands, of small iron bullets. When the shell explodes these bullets spread out over a great area,

killing or wounding many men. But it was soon found that however deadly shrapnel fire might be against an advancing body of men, it was of very little use against troops sheltered in trenches. Lord Kitchener, head of the English War Department, was very severely criticized, early in the war, for not realizing this fact, and providing the army with high-explosive shells.

A high-explosive shell is, as its name implies, one containing a charge of some high-powered explosive, such as the famous T. N. T. (trinitrotoluol), which is far more deadly in its effects than dynamite. Such shells, rained upon a line of trenches, will soon reduce them to a mass of wreckage, even sweeping away the barbed-wire entanglements, and in the case of the great 18-inch shells which the British used in the latter part of the war, penetrating all but the deepest dugouts and blowing them to pieces.

Between the opposing lines of trenches lay a barren waste known as "No Man's Land," into which it was certain death to venture by day. At night scouting-parties, called patrols, were sent out to raid the trenches of the enemy and bring back prisoners, from whom information as to the enemy's plans might be secured. By day, sharpshooters, or "snipers" as they came to be called, lay hidden behind trees, rocks, or in other places secure from observation, and picked off any mem-

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ber of the opposing forces who was careless enough to show his head above the parapet of his trench.

The long months of trench warfare resulted in many new means of attack and defense being developed. At an early period of the war the Germans began the use of hand-grenades, or bombs, which consisted of small receptacles, usually of iron, containing charges of high explosives, attached to a handle or sling, and hurled across No Man's Land into the opposing trenches. The English and French, during the early months of the war, having no supply of such bombs, began to make them by filling discarded jam tins with explosives and attaching a short wick or fuse, which was lit when the bomb was thrown. Later on bombs of a more effective nature were manufactured in large quantities. These improved bombs were exploded not by means of a lighted fuse but by the withdrawing of a small firing-pin. Once the pin was removed, the bomb would explode in five or six seconds, which allowed the bomber just time to hurl it against the enemy. Larger bombs, called rifle-grenades, were made to be discharged from a soldier's rifle, being provided with a long, slender stem or rod which fitted inside the gun-barrel. Many other means for throwing these bombs were devised, one of the earliest of which resembled the ancient Roman ballista, used for hurling stones into an enemy's

camp. These early bomb-throwers were actuated by springs, and sometimes by rubber bands, in the manner of a boy's sling. But it was not long before better means of throwing bombs were devised. The English brought out the Stokes mortar, a short but very effective gun resembling nothing so much as a section of gas-pipe, but capable of discharging across No Man's Land a steady stream of bombs. Other and larger trench mortars came into use, firing great bombs weighing fifty or more pounds, with devastating effect. For a long time the men of science in the opposing armies vied with one another in devising means to make trench warfare more deadly.

While methods of offense were thus multiplying, means of protecting the men against them were likewise developed. Not only did men go back to ancient times for the ballista, but armor once more came into use. It was found that shell fragments and shrapnel caused many head wounds, and it was not long before the men in the trenches were equipped with steel helmets, called by them "tin hats," which afforded great protection. Later on forms of body armor were used by those engaged in especially hazardous work, such as cutting barbed-wire entanglements.

As a result of the war, uniforms underwent a great change. The Germans, prepared in every particular, entered the conflict wearing suits of gray-green, which were extremely inconspicuous,

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even at a short distance. The French in their blue coats and bright red trousers made excellent targets for the enemy, and it was not long before France abandoned her historic uniform, and supplied her men with suits of pale, or horizon, blue. The British used the dull brownish-green khaki from the first, as later did the Americans.

Another effect of trench warfare was to develop the use of underground mines. Mining and sapping had long formed a part of siege operations, and in trench work they were found very effective. Men in the various armies whose occupation in times of peace was that of miners, were set to driving long tunnels under No Man's Land, in order to reach points beneath the opposing trenches at which mines might be exploded, blowing the enemy into the air. Soldiers in listening-posts equipped with delicate instruments for detecting the sounds made by men working underground, were stationed at points in No Man's Land in order to give warning of these tunneling-operations, and then countermining was resorted to, a second tunnel from the opposing side being run out on a lower level, in order to blow up the men working in the first.

Life in these trenches, especially during the first year of the war, was horrible in the extreme. Great hordes of rats, attracted by the presence of food, soon gathered, and became so bold that they even attacked sleeping men. Lice and vermin of

every sort swarmed upon the soldiers' bodies, and in the low-lying sections of Flanders the trenches soon became filled with water and mud. In these trenches the men were obliged to stand for many hours at a time, exposed to the bitter cold, and many lost their feet and legs from freezing. The dead lying in No Man's Land could not be buried, and the air was filled with sickening stench.

The Germans, with their usual forethought, had prepared a sort of fireworks, called flares, which were discharged into the air at night by means of especially designed pistols. These flares, taking fire when discharged, hung suspended in the air for many moments, lighting up the surface of No Man's Land with a brilliant greenish light. They were especially effective in exposing the operations of the enemy's patrols.

In order to obtain a view of the enemy's trenches by day, periscopes, borrowed from the experience of the submarines, were adopted. These periscopes consisted merely of wooden boxes, or tubes, equipped with mirrors, by means of which an observer might look out over No Man's Land without being obliged to expose his head above the parapet of the trench.

Along with these various developments came the improvement of the airship. The huge Zeppelins were soon found to be of little value, owing to the large targets they presented, but the fast-flying airplanes came into ever-greater use. At first,

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carrying but one or two men, they were employed only for scouting, but soon their size and engine-power were greatly increased, and the huge bombing-plane was developed, capable of carrying upward of a ton of high explosives, to be dropped on enemy trenches and fortifications. Lighter machines carrying men equipped with cameras, flew ceaselessly over the opposing lines, photographing every detail of the enemy's trenches. From these photographs maps were made, upon which every gun emplacement, "pill-box," or machine-gun nest was recorded, and when an attack began, the artillerymen used these maps in directing and regulating their fire.

The ever-increasing use of the airplane for spying out the location of the enemy's positions and guns soon brought into use a system of concealment known as "camouflage," from a French word which means, in effect, to cause an object to look like that which it is not. This disguising of things from observation soon took on large proportions. In its simplest form camouflage might consist of a few leaves or branches, spread or hung over a gun, so that its position might not be seen from above, but the science, if it may be so called, developed rapidly under the direction of skilful artists on both sides. Guns and other objects were found to be less easily distinguished, even at short distances, when painted in fantastic colors, and hence it became a common thing to see every sort of



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AMERICAN OFFICER WEARING PROTECTIVE ARMOR FOUND
IN A CAPTURED GERMAN TRENCH



British Official Photograph

A WORKING PARTY OF BRITISH TOMMIES GOING OVER THE TOP AT NIGHT

Note the German flare in the distance, by light of which this photograph was taken

object daubed with all the colors of the rainbow. Before long camouflage came to be used on ships, not only vessels of war, but merchantmen. The sight of great ocean-going liners covered with patches of green, red, black, and yellow, in the manner of a crazy-quilt, would a few years earlier have made the observer think that he had suddenly gone mad.

To hide the movement of men and supplies along roads exposed to the fire of the enemy, huge screens were erected, painted so as to give the impression of foliage, or blank walls. Artificial tree-trunks were constructed and set up in No Man's Land as hiding-places for snipers. Even the dead bodies of horses were imitated, in papier-mâché, and dummy guns, soldiers, and fortifications were frequently employed by both sides, in order to deceive the observers in the air.

The first attempts made by the English and French to overcome the German system of trench defense were failures. The loss in human life was huge, and the world began to think that such defenses could never be taken, except at prohibitive cost. It was not until the latter part of the war that the English and French were able to solve successfully the problem of trench warfare.

CHAPTER IX

THE WESTERN AND TURKISH FRONTS IN 1915

THE British Regular Army was almost destroyed during the great retreat from Mons, the Battle of the Marne, and the defense of the channel ports around Ypres, and as a consequence Great Britain began at once to form a large new army. Lord Kitchener, famous for his brilliant work in the Sudan, and the Boer War, was now at the head of the War Department. All over England volunteers were training, and in Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and the other overseas dominions of the empire men were rallying to the nation's support. In France the war was accepted in the most heroic spirit, and while the men left their farms and shops to defend their country, the women and children took up the men's burdens. Deprived of a large part of her iron and coal deposits, France was obliged to look to England and America for fuel and steel, and this placed her at a great disadvantage. Germany, on the contrary, was drawing large quantities of both from the territories in Belgium and France which she had occupied. It is estimated that without these captured supplies the Germans could have carried on the war for but a few months.

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In the spring of 1915 the English made their first serious attempt to break through the German line of trenches. At the town of Neuve Chapelle they launched a heavy attack, capturing the enemy's lines over a front of several miles. But the losses were huge, and military men were of the opinion that the few miles gained did not justify them. At the Battle of Loos, and in Artois, the results were much the same. It seemed at this time that the Germans could never be driven out of France by a frontal attack.

During the summer the French made a similar attempt, on a far wider front. In the Champagne country, east of the city of Rheims, they sent their troops forward, after a terrific bombardment which leveled the Germans' front line of trenches. At first it seemed as though the French had won a great victory; they swept forward, not only over the first German lines, but even over the second and third, and captured many prisoners and guns, but when they had reached the enemy's rear lines, they found that they could not hold them. Concentrated machine-gun and artillery fire played havoc in the French ranks, and after superhuman efforts they were obliged to fall back. Here, as at Neuve Chapelle, it seemed clear that the cost of breaking through carefully constructed trench-lines was prohibitive.

Early in 1915 the Germans began the use of poison gas as a weapon of war, while attacking

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the British lines in the vicinity of Ypres. This marks the first use of such a method of warfare. No one had supposed that Germany or any other civilized nation would employ such inhuman means to win a war, and when, on this April morning, Canadian troops saw clouds of greenish vapor rolling toward them from the opposing trenches they did not at first know what it meant. They soon found out, however. A few moments later they were surrounded by choking, suffocating fumes which sent them reeling in every direction. With no means of protecting themselves, these gallant men held their ground. Hundreds were overcome and fell writhing in agony, gasping for breath, their lungs seared and burned, but the remainder held on, in spite of the retreat of the French colonial troops on their right, and the German hopes of breaking through the British lines and reaching Calais were once more dashed. Had the Germans made this gas-attack on a wider front, the English lines would unquestionably have been broken.

Within twenty-four hours after the gas-attack began, English chemists had crossed the Channel, and with their French associates were taking steps to protect their men against the use of poison gases. Curious masks, made of cloth and rubber, were designed, through which the poisonous fumes could not penetrate. Breathing was effected through a tube connected with a small box in

which chemicals were placed, to neutralize the effect of the gases and render them harmless. Soon the gas-mask became a recognized part of every soldier's equipment, and masks were even designed for horses, so that artillery could be brought up during gas-attacks.

In the East a very great operation was undertaken by the English, assisted by the French. This was the famous attack upon Constantinople and the Dardanelles, known as the Gallipoli Campaign.

Owing to the progress of submarine warfare, the sending of food-stuffs to England and France was interrupted, and the Allied governments began to fear that a food shortage might result. There were known to be great stores of wheat in Russia, at Odessa and other ports on the Black Sea, but these could be brought out only by way of the Dardanelles, controlled by the Turks. At the same time the Russian armies were in need of ammunition and supplies of all sorts, which could be brought in only by way of the far northern port of Archangel, ice-bound during a large part of the year, or through the Siberian port of Vladivostok, on the Pacific coast, over six thousand miles away from the battle-front. These two considerations seemed to urge that an attempt be made to open the Dardanelles to traffic, and England therefore determined to force a passage of the straits. A fleet was sent to the eastern Mediterranean, con-

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sisting of many of the older-type battle-ships and cruisers. Several French war-ships also joined the fleet.

After a preliminary bombardment of the forts at the entrance to the straits, the battle-ships entered and began a systematic reduction of the Turkish defenses. The attack was making good progress when the Turks, under the advice of their German officers, began to send floating mines down the narrow waterway. As a result, several ships of the attacking fleet, both British and French, were sunk, and the attempt was finally given up. It has since been said that the Turks were short of ammunition, and that had the bombardment been continued for another twenty-four hours, the straits would have been opened and Constantinople would have fallen. It is idle to speculate upon the effect such a victory would have had upon the course of the war; Constantinople did not fall, and the fleet withdrew to await the coming of troops.

There is no doubt that the original attack upon the Dardanelles should have been made by land and sea forces combined. It required a great deal of time to bring up Australian and New Zealand divisions stationed in Egypt, as well as French and British troops from the front in France, and many weeks passed before the expedition was finally ready to begin the attack. Additional war-ships were sent out from England, among them

the new battle-ship *Queen Elizabeth*, mounting 15-inch guns. At last all was ready, and under a terrific bombardment from the Allied fleet landings at several points were made.

The Turks, however, during the weeks that had passed since the first attack, had heavily reinforced their armies and strengthened their defenses. Heavy howitzers, sent from Germany and Austria, were mounted in the forts, able to direct from their stable concrete platforms a plunging fire upon the Allied war-ships and transports. Wire entanglements had been built along the shore down to the water's edge and beyond, while machine guns, carefully placed and hidden, swept every avenue of approach. Everything had been done to render the Turkish positions on the Gallipoli Peninsula as nearly impregnable as human ingenuity could make them. When the Allied troops finally reached land they found themselves confronted by almost insurmountable obstacles. No troops ever fought more bravely than did these hardy volunteers from Australia and New Zealand ("Anzacs" they were called, from the first letters of the words "Australian-New Zealand Army Corps"), as well as the English and French troops which supported them, but the attack was doomed to failure. Transports crowded with troops were brought up during the night, and the men taken ashore at daybreak by means of barges and lighters. Subjected to a heavy fire, many of

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these boats were sunk, and when the survivors reached the beaches, through wire entanglements built under water, they found themselves swept by a hail of machine-gun fire.

In spite of these terrible conditions, the landings were finally made, and the Anzacs, with almost superhuman courage and in spite of extremely heavy losses, succeeded in driving the Turks back into the hills. The country, however, rocky and rough, proved almost impassable. The heat was terrific. There was no supply of water, and the arrangements for bringing it up were inadequate. As a result, the advance of the attacking forces was painfully slow. As they progressed inland, the difficulties which attended the bringing up of supplies of all sorts increased. The broken nature of the country provided the Turks with unusual opportunities for defense, and the small advances which the Allied troops were able to make cost them very heavy losses. For many weeks the attack went on, and at times it seemed as though success might crown the Allied efforts, but the Turks proved themselves brave and hard-fighting antagonists, and in the end the expedition was given up. By a skilful retreat, made without the Turks' knowledge, the Allied troops evacuated their positions on the peninsula and returned to their ships. This attempt to open the Dardanelles and take Constantinople cost the Allies over a hun-

dred thousand men, and was one of the most tragic failures of the war.

We have spoken of the dropping of bombs on the city of Antwerp in October, 1914. In December of that year, on Christmas Eve, the Germans gave the world another example of their policy of frightfulness by dropping similar bombs on London. Airships of the Zeppelin type crossed the Channel and flew over the city, leaving destruction and death in their wake. Many persons were killed or wounded, and much property was destroyed, but no military advantage was gained. It is supposed that by these attacks, which were contrary to the rules of war, the Germans hoped to terrify the British to such an extent that they would ask for peace. If this was indeed their purpose, it failed miserably. The people of England, and of France as well (for Paris was also given a taste of this kind of warfare), were not frightened in the least. On the contrary, these inhuman attacks made them all the more determined to carry on the war until Germany should be utterly defeated. At frequent intervals, during the next three years, the attacks were repeated, first with Zeppelins, and later on, when the latter proved too easy of destruction, with airplanes, and many hundreds of persons lost their lives, but the only result was to send more and more men to the recruiting-stations.

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From the beginning German frightfulness was a boomerang which recoiled upon the heads of its perpetrators. It was persisted in until very nearly the end of the war. It was only when the Allies, at last goaded into retaliation, began to drop bombs on the German cities along the Rhine that the German authorities denounced the practice as inhuman and illegal and demanded that it be given up by both sides. It is interesting to note the peculiar psychology of the Germans in this and other similar respects. So long as the bombing of cities from the air affected only their enemies, it was considered proper and right. When, however, German cities were affected, the practice at once became illegal. Many evidences of this oblique method of thinking are to be met with on the part of the Germans during the war. The explanation may possibly be found in the belief on the part of the German people that they were superior to other peoples, supermen, in fact, to whom the rules of conduct and morality practised by the rest of the world did not apply.

During 1915 the world was treated to still another exhibition of this policy of frightfulness through the use of liquid fire in war. The ancients used such means to destroy the ships or wooden towers of their enemies, but it was left to the Germans to employ them against human beings. A story is told of a young interne in a British base hospital, who, when he saw the first

scorched and blackened victims of this horrible method of making war, tore off his white coat and rushed out to enlist, determined to do his bit to put a stop to such practices.

Throughout all this time Belgium was held in the iron grip of the invader. Being a manufacturing country, it was obliged to import the bulk of its food, and now, shut off from the world, it faced starvation. It was of course the duty of the Germans to feed the population of the territories they had occupied, but Germany, short of food-stuffs at home, decided to let the Belgians starve. Had it not been for the people of England, France, Holland, and the United States the situation of Belgium would have been desperate, but through the efforts of humane Englishmen and Americans, a commission was formed for the relief of the starving Belgians and great quantities of food were sent into the country and distributed, under the direction of the German authorities. Belgium's martyrdom had only just begun. She was later to endure not only the pangs of hunger but the terrors of slavery as well.

CHAPTER X

THE SINKING OF THE LUSITANIA

THE crowning achievement of German frightfulness was the sinking of the great transatlantic liner *Lusitania*. No other event in the course of the war so stirred the anger of neutral countries, or did so much to convince them that Germany was a nation of barbarians.

On May 1, 1915, the British ship *Lusitania*, of the Cunard Line, left New York for Liverpool with 1257 passengers and a crew of 702 men, making a total of nearly 2000 men, women, and children aboard. She carried a general cargo of merchandise, and a few cases of cartridges, but no explosives of any sort. She was unarmed.

As has been pointed out in a previous chapter, the rules of war as laid down by international law provide that an unarmed merchant ship cannot be legally sunk, in time of war, without first being warned, and after that searched, to determine whether or not she carries contraband. Further, if circumstances prevent her captors from taking her into port, they cannot sink her until every precaution has first been taken to provide for the safety of the passengers and crew, and for the

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preservation of their personal property. These rules were made in order to protect as fully as possible the lives and welfare of non-combatants.

The German Government, having decided to sink the *Lusitania*, knew that it would be impossible for their submarines to warn the vessel of her fate. Had they done so, the liner would have escaped owing to her great speed. They therefore undertook to issue this warning by publishing in the newspapers of America a statement advising the public that the waters around Great Britain and Ireland had been declared by them to be a war zone, and that persons taking passage on ships passing through those waters were in danger of losing their lives.

One of the rights always strictly maintained by the United States and other nations was that which permitted neutral non-combatants to take passage on enemy merchant ships, even during the progress of a war. It was held that no nation had the right to stop traffic by sea, or to prevent the citizens of neutral countries from exercising their right to go about their legitimate business. Hence Americans who were planning to cross to England on the *Lusitania* were not deterred by these newspaper warnings. They had the right, their government told them, to cross the ocean on a peaceful merchant ship, and they did not propose to give up this right at the command of the German Government. On the first of May the *Lusitania* set

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sail, with her large complement of passengers and crew.

On May 7, when near the Irish coast, the vessel was torpedoed without warning, and sank in less than twenty minutes, with a loss of 1195 persons, over a hundred of whom were American citizens.

There went up from the whole civilized world a cry of horror at this barbarous act, but the German people, instead of feeling a sense of shame, gloried in the deed. Throughout Germany the event was celebrated, school-children were given a holiday, and a medal was struck in honor of the occasion. The German Government pretended to believe that the vessel was armed and that it carried a cargo of ammunition, but it was shown later that neither of these contentions was true.

A wave of resentment swept over America when the news was received, and the country came very near to entering the war, but the Administration at Washington felt that the time had not arrived, and the United States remained neutral.

It became apparent to the statesmen of both England and France, soon after the war broke out, that the factories of those countries would be unable to supply the immense quantities of shells and other materials required by modern warfare. Hence large orders for munitions were placed in the United States. It was held by international law to be strictly within the rights of any neutral nation to supply a belligerent with such materials,

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the chance being taken, of course, that they might be captured or destroyed by the enemy while in transit. Germany, during previous wars, such as that between Spain and the United States, or between Russia and Japan, had freely availed herself of this privilege, and her great Krupp works at Essen had made large profits by carrying on trade in arms and ammunition. But when America began to exercise the same right by sending supplies to England and France, Germany contended that the United States was helping her enemies, and made violent protests.

The sinking of the *Lusitania* brought this question to a head. Although the vessel carried no munitions of war, the rights of American citizens on the high seas had been violated, and President Wilson at once sent a sharp note to Germany, demanding that she disavow the sinking, punish the commander of the submarine responsible for it, and make prompt reparation for the American lives which had been lost. Germany, through her shrewd ambassador at Washington, Count von Bernstorff, made a pretense of agreeing to these demands, but first attempted to maintain that the vessel was armed and carried munitions of war.

Meanwhile, other passenger ships had been sunk, both before and after the loss of the *Lusitania*, and American lives had been sacrificed, but Germany explained through diplomatic channels that she had not ordered these sinkings, and by

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quibbling of various sorts avoided any definite settlement of the question. She argued that her use of submarines to prevent food-stuffs and supplies of any kind from reaching England was a measure of retaliation against the English blockade, which she claimed was starving her people, but the facts are that the German submarine warfare began before the English Government put into effect its policy of excluding from Germany all food-stuffs which might aid her enemies to win the war. Germany's claims on this score were absolutely false.

Many persons in the United States thought that war should have been declared against Germany when the *Lusitania* was sunk, but after a time the public clamor died down, and America remained neutral. It was also claimed, even in Congress, that the United States should not help Germany's enemies by sending them ammunition and guns, it being forgotten that such supplies would have been sent quite as willingly to Germany, had that country possessed any means of transporting them to her ports. But there were no German ships at sea, and hence Germany wished by influencing the United States to make her enemies as helpless in this respect as she was herself.

Meanwhile, German spies and secret agents of every sort were at work, carrying on a campaign in the United States itself, the object of which was to cripple the country's trade with England and

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France. Many factories engaged in making munitions of war were burned or blown up, with loss of life, and strikes were fomented wherever possible. All this work was done under the direction and supervision of Germany's ambassador at Washington, Count von Bernstorff, and his military and naval aides, Lieutenant von Papen and Captain Boy-Ed. German influence in America was very strong, and the imperial government felt such confidence in it that the kaiser had the impudence to tell the American Ambassador at Berlin, Mr. Gerard, that he would "stand no nonsense from America," while about the same time one of his officials remarked that there were in the United States five hundred thousand German reservists, who would fight on the German side in case of war. Mr. Gerard quietly replied that there were five hundred thousand lamp-posts in the United States upon which these reservists would be promptly hanged.

Such was the condition of affairs between Germany and the United States in the year 1915.

CHAPTER XI

THE EASTERN FRONT DURING 1914 AND 1915

ON the eastern front tremendous operations were under way during the autumn and winter of 1914, and throughout the year 1915. Russia, although checked in her advance into East Prussia, owing to von Hindenburg's victory at Tannenberg, was for a time successful in her campaign against Austria.

The armies of the czar were, when the war began, under the command of the Grand-Duke Nicholas, a brilliant and able leader. Advancing with a great army across the Austrian frontier in August, 1914, he effectually checkmated an invasion of Russian Poland that the Austrians had begun, and drove their forces in the direction of the city of Lemberg, capital and largest city of Galicia, having a population of two hundred thousand. In a great battle the Austrians were defeated, and the armies of the czar under Generals Russky and Brusiloff effected a junction at Tarnopol and began a rapid advance upon Lemberg. Heavy fighting continued throughout the latter part of August and the early part of September, the Russian armies, directed by the Grand-Duke Nicholas with great strategic skill, forcing the

Austrians to give way in a general retreat. On September 2 the Russians took Lemberg.

Without interruption the Russian advance kept up. By September 8 the Russian forces were in touch with the enemy at the town of Rawaruska, west of Lemberg, where, after furious fighting, the Austrians were again defeated, and a little later, on September 14, they were driven with great slaughter across the river San. By the end of the month the Russians had conquered all of eastern Galicia, caused the Austrians losses of two hundred and fifty thousand men in killed and wounded, taken one hundred thousand prisoners, and laid siege to the fortress of Przemysl.

Przemysl, a city of fifty thousand inhabitants, was strongly fortified and withstood a long siege. Its garrison of over a hundred thousand men made a brave and spirited resistance which lasted for seven months, and it was not until the latter part of the following March that it finally capitulated. Meanwhile the Russian armies had swept on in the direction of Cracow, the powerful Austrian fortress on the river Vistula, and to the southwest had reached the line of the Carpathian Mountains, which form a strong natural barrier between Galicia and the plains of Hungary. By the middle of November the forces of the grand-duke were within fifteen miles of Cracow, in the north, and were threatening an invasion of Hungary in the south. The inhabitants of Cracow sent urgent ap-

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peals to Germany for aid, and Berlin began to feel alarmed. The advance through Cracow, directed toward the northwest, would if successful cut off the Austrian armies from their German allies and open the way for an attack on Germany itself. At this period of the war the Allies had great hopes that the "Russian steam-roller," as it was called, would before long prove the deciding factor in the conflict. Early in December, in answer to the Austrian appeals, German troops began to arrive to aid in the defense of Cracow. Meanwhile, the extreme left or southern wing of the Russian advance had sustained some severe checks, notably at Czernowitz, capital of the Austrian province of Bukowina.

The arrival of the German troops soon stiffened the Austrian resistance. Not only was the advance upon Cracow checked, but Austrian and German troops, entering Galicia through the southern passes over the Carpathians, threatened to cut off the Russian raiding-parties which had advanced into Hungary through other passes further to the north, and these parties had to be withdrawn. The passes themselves, however, the Russians still held, and a series of tremendous battles for their possession now began. From Christmas Day, 1914, throughout the entire remainder of the winter furious combats, in thick mountain forests covered with snow, went on, with victory in the balance. These great battles for the

passes of the Carpathians marked a critical period of the war.

Meanwhile, further to the north, the Germans under von Hindenburg had begun a powerful advance through Russian Poland, which had as its objective the capital city of Warsaw. Łódź, as we have seen, had already fallen, but the Germans were unable to gain much ground beyond it to the east.

During the winter of 1914-15, German strategy underwent a change. The plan to defeat France and then turn on Russia had failed. France was not defeated, and the Russians were pressing Austria hard along the Carpathians. The German general staff therefore reversed its plans, and decided, while holding off France and England in the West, to inflict upon Russia a great defeat, and put that country out of the war.

The battles for the passes of the Carpathians ended in the month of April, 1915, and were in effect a Russian victory, since Russian troops still held two of the passes, as well as Lemberg and the greater part of Galicia. Przemyśl had fallen to them and the Germans began to see that if they expected to defeat Russia they would be obliged to put forth much greater efforts than they had yet made. Consequently a gigantic army, provided with immense quantities of shells and many heavy guns, was sent to the eastern front from Germany, and united with large Austrian forces. This great

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concentration of men and materials was made in secret, and the campaign was entrusted to the command of General (afterward Field-Marshal) von Mackensen. Soon there took place an utter change in the eastern situation.

The troops under General von Mackensen, numbering over two million men, were concentrated in greatest force along the line of the Dunajec River. The opposing Russian forces at this point were inferior both in numbers and in equipment, especially of the heavier types of artillery. General von Mackensen's plan in this vast operation was literally to blast a hole through the Russian lines by means of his heavy guns, and then to rush through the opening thus made a huge force of men. The plan succeeded perfectly. On May 2 a hurricane of fire was directed upon the Russian lines on a narrow front opposite Gorlice. In the course of four hours, seven hundred thousand shells were fired, many of them from 7-inch Krupp guns, others—huge projectiles, weighing half a ton—from the Austrian 30.5-centimeter (12-inch) Skodas. The Russian positions were literally blasted to pieces. Their lighter artillery was smothered. Within a few hours the German-Austrian troops were entering Gorlice. For a depth of two miles, on a front of ten, the Russian lines had been penetrated.

By some oversight the Russians had not prepared second- and third-line positions to which

they might fall back in case of defeat. The German and Austrian troops poured through the gap they had made, constantly deepening and widening it, and the great retreat gradually spread north and south, on each side of the break, as was the case with the Germans after their defeat before Paris at the Battle of the Marne. But the Germans had their strongly prepared positions along the Aisne to retire to, while the Russians had nothing but the several rivers which lay between them and the frontier. They were also threatened by a great outflanking movement of the Germans and Austrians coming up from the southwest. At the river San the Russians turned, and with the utmost bravery checked the advancing enemy in a great battle, but nothing could stop the German drive. The lack of artillery was the cause of the Russian defeat. Steadily their lines fell back. By the third of June Przemyśl was recaptured, and by the twenty-second of that month the Austro-German forces were back in Lemberg. It was not long before the Russians had been completely driven out of western Galicia.

This Galician campaign under General von Mackensen is regarded by military authorities as one of the most brilliant of the war. Within a few weeks the Russians had lost everything that they had gained in almost a year. It demonstrated to the world once more the perfection of the German military machine. One can form

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some idea of the size of the campaign by considering the losses, which on the two sides amounted to a million men.

While these important events were taking place in Galicia, others of equal importance had occurred farther north.

The Russians, after their defeat by von Hindenburg at Tannenberg, retired across their frontiers, behind the Niemen River. German attempts to follow them failed. Then the Russians began a second invasion of East Prussia, advancing from their base at Grodno. The Germans, in too small force to take the offensive, contented themselves with defending their territory, and by the end of October, 1914, this second invasion came to an end. Then the Germans, having been reinforced, began a drive for Warsaw, which finally resulted, as we have seen in a previous chapter, in their capture of the Russian fortress of Łódź. Terrific fighting occurred for mile after mile east of Łódź, in the direction of Warsaw, all during the months of November and December, 1914, and January, 1915, but the Russians defended the city with the greatest bravery, and by the middle of February the fighting had died down, and Warsaw was still in Russian hands. In order to weaken the German drive against Warsaw, the Russians began, late in December, a counter-drive into East Prussia, thus for the third time invading that territory. Crossing the river Niemen, the armies of the czar



RUSSIAN ARTILLERY IN ACTION AGAINST THE GERMANS ON THE EASTERN FRONT

The photograph was taken under fire



As Illustrated in "The Alps"

CAMPING IN THE ALPS

THE DAIMLER MOTOR CAR IS THE ONLY ONE THAT CAN BE USED IN THE ALPS

moved rapidly along the coast of the Baltic toward Königsberg, which had been threatened earlier in the year by the army of General Rennenkampf. Again General von Hindenburg was sent to drive them back, and there resulted one of the most terrible battles of the war, called the Battle of the Masurian Lakes. It lasted for nine days, from the seventh of February, 1915, to the sixteenth, although the pursuit of the beaten Russians continued for many days thereafter.

The Masurian Lakes are a chain of small bodies of water connected by wide stretches of marshland, interspersed by little streams all of which are covered with ice in midwinter, at which season the battle took place. The ground was thick with snow, drifted by high winds, and the conditions for military operations were extremely difficult. The German forces, under von Hindenburg, numbered at least a hundred and fifty thousand men. The Russians asserted that they were double this. The exact number of Russian troops engaged is not known, but it probably was not less than two hundred thousand. Von Hindenburg put his guns and transport wagons on runners, and undertook successfully his favorite plan of outflanking the enemy and surrounding them. The Russians, not believing that they could be attacked in the midst of a violent snow-storm, neglected to keep proper watch, with the result that their right wing was surprised and overcome. A sudden attack upon

their left also drove that in, and the Russian armies fled in confusion. By the middle of February they had been completely driven from German soil, and during the retreat their losses were very heavy, large numbers being driven into the lakes and marshes, which had suddenly thawed, and drowned. The Germans contended that the Russians lost a hundred thousand men, these figures, however, being denied by their opponents. The fact remains that von Hindenburg gained a great victory, which heartened the German people at a time when, on both the western front and in Galicia, the war seemed to be going against them.

The success at the Masurian Lakes was soon followed up. In April a German army in turn advanced along the shores of the Baltic into the Russian province of Courland, and occupied the city of Libau. By the end of June this force had reached Mitau, just a little west of the great Russian port of Riga, on the Baltic. This quick advance, at the same time that von Mackensen and his armies were driving the Russians out of Galicia, was, as can readily be seen, a dangerous menace to the northern end or flank of the long Russian line. By the first of July the tremendous nature of the German campaign against Russia was apparent. In the extreme north the Russian flank, resting on the Baltic, was threatened. In the south German and Austrian armies were pressing the Russian forces back with huge losses. Now the Germans struck



The Eastern Front. The heavy line shows the position to which the Russians retreated after the fall of Warsaw in 1915.

at the Russian center, opposite Warsaw. After severe fighting, the Russian fortified positions

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around Przasnysz were taken, and the armies of the czar fell back across the Rawka and Bzura rivers to a position about fifteen miles to the west of Warsaw. Russia was in a panic, but her soldiers resisted bravely. By the end of July the Germans had crossed the Vistula, and on August 4 the great fortress of Ivangorod, thirty miles south of Warsaw, surrendered. The city was rapidly being surrounded. On the same night a great Russian retreat began.

The Grand-Duke Nicholas deserves the utmost credit for the masterly way in which he saved his armies. The Russians were short of ammunition, and also of rifles. Thousands of men went into battle unarmed, waiting until their comrades fell, in order that they might seize the guns of the dead and wounded. In many cases they fought desperately with iron bars, or even clubs. Against the perfectly equipped German troops they had no chance. We have shown in a preceding chapter what desperate efforts the British and French were making to force the passage of the Dardanelles and carry the sorely needed supplies to their Russian allies. Even now, however, it was too late. The Russian armies were in retreat all along the thousand-mile line from the Baltic to the borders of Rumania. In one of the most titanic campaigns ever fought, in which close to seven million men were engaged on the two sides, the Germans had been the victors.

After the fall of Warsaw, the Germans pressed rapidly eastward into Russia. At the end of August the strong fortress of Brest Litovsk fell, and the capture of Grodno and Vilna followed. All the great fortresses built by the Russians against attacks from the west were in the enemy's hands, and their armies were two hundred miles east of Warsaw. In the north the Germans reached Dvinsk, on the road to Petrograd, but here they were stopped. In the south von Mackensen's armies captured the city of Pinsk, and drove the Russians to the line of the great Pripet Marshes. Here, intrenched in an almost impassable land of bogs, they held. By November winter had set in and the great retreat was over. As a result of it Russia for the time being was virtually out of the war, although she had saved her armies. The czar, realizing the desperate nature of the situation, relieved the Grand-Duke Nicholas of his command and took charge of the armies of Russia himself.

CHAPTER XII

ITALY AND THE BALKAN STATES

IN the month of May, 1915, while the great drive of General von Mackensen in Galicia was thrilling the people of Germany, an event took place which brought joy to the Allied nations. Italy, which had been a member of the Triple Alliance, entered the war on the side of the Entente.

For this action she had the following reasons. Italy hated Austria, the two countries having fought many wars in the past. She had joined the Triple Alliance because of disagreements with France over the question of Tunis, in northern Africa. England, however, had always been Italy's friend, supplying that country with many needed articles, among them coal. There was a particular reason, however, for friction between Italy and Austria, and it had to do with certain portions of Austria lying around the city of Trieste, at the head of the Adriatic, and also with certain other sections of country lying north of the Italian border, around the city of Trent. These territories were inhabited largely by Italians, although under Austrian rule, and their people wished to become a part of Italy. Here again we see conditions leading to war, arising from the

evil system of laying out national boundaries to suit political purposes rather than the wishes of the people. The boundaries of Austria, where that country joined Italy, had been arranged at the peace table, and were so located that Austria would hold the mountain passes in the Trent district, thus being able, in case of war with Italy, to pour her troops down into the northern Italian plains. Around Trieste, on the other hand, the boundaries were arranged so that Austria, and not Italy, should possess that large seaport at the head of the Adriatic Sea. These boundaries were artificial, and the fact that the territories in question were racially Italian, not Austrian, made no difference to the autocratic rulers of the dual monarchy. In Italy these provinces were called *Italia irredenta*, or unredeemed Italy, and the Italians felt the same desire to get them back that the people of France felt to get back the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine.

In breaking with the Triple Alliance, Italy was technically quite within her rights. As has been pointed out in an earlier chapter, the terms of this alliance provided that Italy was to side with Austria and Germany only in case those countries were attacked. She held then, what has since been amply proved, that Germany and Austria were not attacked, but that on the contrary they were the aggressors. But before entering the war Italy demanded of Austria her lost provinces. When

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Austria refused to give them up, the people of Italy determined to take them by force of arms. War was declared against Austria, on May 23, although not against Germany until later, and the Italian Army was called to the colors.

In order to attack Austria, the Italians could advance in but two directions. One was directly north, through the mountain passes, toward Trent. These passes, however, were, as has been said, held by the Austrians, who had heavily fortified them. Campaigning in such territory is well-nigh impossible. The defiles through the mountains, covered with snow for a large part of the year, could be held by small forces against an army. Fighting would have to be done at times above the clouds, with the thermometer below zero, artillery and supplies being hauled up steep cliffs and mountain-sides on sleds. It was impossible for Italy to invade Austria in this direction with any prospect of success, and the Austrian commanders knew it.

The other available direction for an advance was toward the east. Here the Austrian frontier was protected by a wide and deep river, the Isonzo. The Italian leaders decided to make their main attack eastward, across the river Isonzo toward Gorizia and Trieste, at the same time undertaking a difficult campaign northward, to secure and hold the mountain passes into Austria. A glance at the map will show that if these passes were not held,

the Austrian forces, sweeping southward through them, could strike the Italians on their northern flank, cut their lines of communication, and get behind the army attacking along the Isonzo and capture it.

The Italian operations were brilliantly conducted, although for a long time the world heard little about them. The terrific campaign northward for the possession of the mountain passes was carried on against almost insuperable obstacles. Roads were constructed up impassable mountain-sides by the brilliant Italian engineers; great cableways were built of wire ropes, leading from peak to peak, by means of which men, supplies, and guns were carried in swinging cars across mountain torrents and deep valleys; artillery was hauled on sledges by hundreds of men to the tops of rocky and snow-covered crags, while the men fought in Arctic temperatures with the greatest bravery. Slowly the Austrians were pushed back from the Italian frontier, as position after position was taken from them.

Meanwhile, the larger campaign to the east was making excellent progress. In June, 1915, the Italians crossed the Isonzo River and began a rapid advance toward Gorizia. As a result, the Austrians were obliged to detach many men from their armies on the Russian front, in order to protect their western frontier. Gorizia was besieged, and the Italians began a series of operations to

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obtain possession of the Carso Plateau, a rough and difficult series of hills and ravines lying between them and the city of Trieste, to the south. During the month of August fighting went on day and night for the control of this plateau, the Italians making steady progress. Around Gorizia terrific fighting continued throughout the entire autumn for the possession of Monte San Michele, a high hill defending the city. As the year 1915 closed, the two armies were locked in a struggle of the bitterest and most sanguinary nature, without decisive results having been obtained by either side.

We have left the Balkan situation without attention since the opening of the war. Many serious events had taken place in the peninsula. The first Austrian advance into Serbia, begun in July, 1914, was, as we have previously said, a huge failure. Within a week after the Austrian troops crossed the Danube and entered Serbian territory they had been driven back with heavy losses. The heroic resistance of the Serbians astonished the world.

Again the Austrians, humiliated by their unexpected defeat, attacked, and again they were driven back, beaten and confused. Then the Austrian leaders prepared for a mighty effort. Reinforcements of men and guns were hurried up, and a third army was sent into Serbian territory. This attack gained some success. Belgrade, the capital

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of Serbia, was taken, and progress southward toward Nish was made. The Serbians rallied, however, and met the Austrians in a great battle. Just when fortune seemed to be favoring the enemy, the Serbian ruler, King Peter—a white-haired old man—rode among his troops and heedless of danger led them against the foe. The Austrians broke and fled, the Serbians pursued them, and for the third time drove them across the Danube. This battle occurred in December, 1914, and it was not until the autumn of 1915 that Austria again attempted the invasion of Serbia. The brave resistance made by this small nation in the defense of its liberties must always remain one of the most thrilling chapters of the war.

Now, however, in October, 1915, Serbia was to get a taste of the sort of warfare that the Germans under von Mackensen had just given Russia. Before we take up this Serbian campaign, let us see what had been going on in the other parts of the Balkans.

The Allies, realizing the danger which would result to their cause from a German domination of the Balkan States, had made many attempts to get Greece to join them. But the king of this country, Constantine, was married to a sister of the German Emperor, and his sympathies were all with the kaiser. Greece had fought with Serbia against Bulgaria in the second Balkan War a short time before and the two countries had entered into an

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alliance, under the terms of which it was Greece's duty to come to Serbia's assistance in case of war. This, however, under the influence of Constantine, she refused to do. The sympathies of the nation were divided. The official classes largely sided with the king, while the common people, led by Venizelos, Greece's great premier, sympathized with the Allies and urged the king to carry out his treaty obligations. Influenced by his wife, Constantine steadily refused.

When the Allies saw that Greece would do nothing, and that Germany and Austria were preparing to overrun Serbia as they had already overrun Belgium and the western part of Russia, they realized that some action would have to be taken, unless they were willing to give up all hold on the Balkan States. A fleet of war-ships was therefore dispatched to the Greek port of Saloniki and with the consent of Venizelos the port was seized, and troops were landed, among them forces withdrawn from the unsuccessful attempt upon the Dardanelles. At the same time Italian troops were sent across the Adriatic and landed in the old Turkish province of Albania. The forces at Saloniki were increased later on, until a very large army was collected there, but it remained inactive for a long time—in fact, until the very end of the war. It was a difficult matter to keep these troops supplied with food and ammunition, as virtually everything had to be sent out from France and

England by water, and the Mediterranean Sea, through which the supply-ships were obliged to pass, was infested with German and Austrian submarines. Critics of the government in England and France maintained that it was a waste of men and money to keep these forces in Greece, when they were so badly needed on the western front, but although, as the years went by, it seemed that the great army at Saloniki accomplished nothing, the wisdom of keeping these men there was shown in the last few weeks of the war, when they won a great victory.

In 1915 another country entered the war on the German side. This was Bulgaria, peopled by the Slavic race. Bulgaria owed her independence from Turkish rule to help given her by Russia, and her people regarded the Turks as their hereditary enemies. She should naturally, therefore, have taken sides with the Allies rather than with Germany, Austria, and Turkey. But her ruler, Ferdinand, who called himself the Bulgarian "czar," was a crafty and unscrupulous monarch, who was convinced that Germany would win the war. He therefore threw his country into the conflict on the side of the kaiser, having been promised large rewards in territory in return for his aid. Some years earlier, at the close of the first Balkan War, in which Bulgaria and Serbia fought side by side against the Turks, these two countries had quarreled and fought over the possession of Macedonia,

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thus causing the second Balkan War. Rumania, another of the Balkan states, coming to Serbia's assistance, invaded Bulgaria, with the result that the latter country lost not only Macedonia but a large section of territory lying south of the Danube along the Bulgarian border known as the Dobrudja. The loss of these territories rankled in the Bulgarians' minds, and they saw in victory by Germany a chance to get them back. Early in October, 1915, they entered the war on the German side by beginning an attack upon Serbia.

We are now ready to go back to the great drive through Serbia that the Germans and Austrians made in the autumn of 1915, the command of which was entrusted to General von Mackensen, who, as we have seen, had just broken the Russian lines and driven their armies out of Galicia.

With a mixed force of Germans and Austrians, von Mackensen reached the Danube. His army numbered three hundred thousand picked men, and with them they brought two thousand guns. On September 20 a terrific bombardment of the Serbian positions on the south bank of the Danube began. Huge German and Austrian shells rained upon the Serbian defenses of Belgrade, blowing them to bits. In spite of the bravest resistance, von Mackensen's men succeeded by October 6 in crossing the river. English naval guns and gunners, hastily sent to aid in the defense of Belgrade, were no more successful against the heavy German

howitzers here than they had been at Antwerp. The Serbians fell back toward the south, along the Morava Valley, followed by the Austro-Germans. Then came the sudden attack by Bulgaria from the east, many miles south of where the main Serbian army was fighting. Bulgaria's unexpected blow ended the Serbian hopes. Resistance in the north, with the enemy tearing at their flank, was useless. The French and British forces at Saloniki, far to the south, were not strong enough to come to the Serbians' aid. Greece still wavered, her people showing increasing sympathy with the Allies, her king and queen looking coldly on, receiving their instructions from the kaiser and the great general staff at Berlin. Nish, close to the Bulgarian border, and an important point on the Berlin-to-Bagdad railroad, fell on November 5, and the Serbian capital, which had been located there since the fall of Belgrade, was moved to Monastir, far to the southwest. The French and British came into the battle against the Bulgarians, advancing toward Saloniki, but were barely able to hold their own. By the end of November the remnants of the gallant Serbian Army had either been driven westward into the desolate mountains of Albania, or were clinging desperately to a tiny corner of their country around Monastir. The Germans had accomplished their purpose, which was to free from Serbian control that portion of the Berlin-to-Bagdad railway running through Serbia from Bel-

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grade to Nish. With Bulgaria in league with them, they now had uninterrupted communication by rail from Berlin to Constantinople, and were able to send guns, ammunition, and other supplies to their allies the Turks.

Meanwhile Serbia had been virtually destroyed. All the terrors of the Belgian invasion had been repeated, on an even more frightful scale. The population of the country—men, women, and children—was almost wiped out. Germans, Austrians, and Bulgarians vied with one another in their cruelties. Villages were destroyed, the aged and the children either shot or starved in internment camps, the young girls sold into slavery. It has been estimated that over two thirds of the entire population perished as a result of the Austro-German and Bulgarian invasions. Thus, while the British and French were hammering unsuccessfully at the German lines in the West, the East had been the scene of huge German successes. From the Gulf of Riga in the north to Constantinople in the south, the Teutonic forces had gained an almost uninterrupted series of victories. These were dark days for the cause of the Allies.



Before the war



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The same "Kultured"

THE FAMOUS CLOTH HALL AT YPRES, BELGIUM



British Official Photograph

HEAVY BRITISH TANK IN DIFFICULTIES



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A "FLEET" OF FRENCH WHIPPET TANKS

CHAPTER XIII

OTHER EVENTS IN 1915

ONE of the results of the diplomatic battle which went on between Germany and the United States during the latter part of 1915, was a promise on Germany's part to sink no more passenger ships without first giving them warning. This promise was not kept, nor had Germany any intention to keep it. The world has since learned that her reason for making it was to gain time in which to build a fleet of larger and more powerful submarines, with which she expected to bring England to her knees. Her policy of sinking by wholesale not only enemy but neutral merchant ships wherever they might be found, and whatever they carried, whether contraband or not, had a double purpose. The first was to prevent food and munitions of war from reaching her enemies. The second was so to cut down the number of ships in the merchant fleets of the world, of which England owned approximately one half, that when the war was over the great merchant marine of the English would be crippled or destroyed, while she, Germany, with her vessels safely lying in neutral harbors, could gain possession of the ocean carry-

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ing-trade of the world. It is of interest to note that before the war was over, Germany had succeeded in sinking almost half of the world's available ocean-going tonnage.

In their rage for destruction the German submarines, as we have said, did not confine their efforts to the ships of the Allies alone. Hundreds of Norwegian, Danish, Dutch, Spanish, and other neutral vessels were sent to the bottom, along with their crews. Such sinkings were of course illegal, and in ordinary circumstances would have been considered grounds for war, but the small neutral nations of Europe, after seeing what had happened to Belgium and Serbia, were far too afraid of the German mailed fist to do more than weakly protest. They knew they were powerless, yet they were obliged, without recourse, month after month, to see their ships sunk, and hundreds, even thousands, of innocent sailors drowned.

Not only did the German submarines sink these trading-ships; often they turned their guns on the survivors as these tried to escape in open boats, and in this way many persons were killed. One might have supposed that even German barbarity could go no further, and yet the world was given another example of "frightfulness." Many merchant vessels, withdrawn from trade by the British and French, and put into service as hospital ships, were deliberately sunk. These ships were painted white, with great red crosses and other dis-

tinguishing marks upon them to indicate their use, yet they were not safe from attack. In fact, they seemed to invite attack all the more readily because of their markings, and later in the war the British were obliged to do away with the distinguishing marks, and paint them like ordinary vessels, to render them even moderately safe. The Germans, always ready with excuses, contended that the British and French hospital ships carried ammunition, and even troops. This was not true, but it served as an excuse to persist in such inhuman warfare.

The German practice of firing on the Red Cross flag was not confined to hospital ships. All through the war the Germans violated the rules of civilized warfare by dropping bombs on hospitals, by utilizing ambulances for bringing up ammunition, even by carrying machine guns hidden in stretchers, knowing that the stretcher-bearers would not be fired upon. It became clear that Germany intended to win the war at any cost. Honor, as understood among self-respecting peoples, she apparently had no use for. During the Belgian invasion it was a frequent practice to drive Belgian peasants—women and children—in front of German regiments while making an attack, it being known that their countrymen would not fire upon them. Over and over, during the war, German soldiers would hold up their hands and pretend to surrender, only to step aside when their

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unsuspecting enemies came up, disclosing machine guns which at once opened fire upon them.

In German and Austrian prison camps many brutalities were practised. The English were the especial objects of German hatred, and were treated with the utmost severity. Half starved, they were forced to do the hardest kind of labor, and were kicked and beaten and tortured at the least sign of insubordination. Mr. Gerard, American Ambassador to Germany before the United States entered the war, says that at one of the camps which he visited German children amused themselves by standing outside the wire fences about the enclosure and shooting arrows at the prisoners within. The horrors of these prison camps would fill many volumes. We can do no more than mention them here. But it affords the peoples of the Allied countries satisfaction to know that among the hundreds of thousands of prisoners taken by them during the war, there are no instances in which the enemy received any but the kindest and most humane treatment.

Throughout the years 1915 and 1916, the underground work of the Germans in the United States went on. The burning or blowing up of munition factories assumed large proportions. Strikes were continually being fomented. Bombs placed aboard ships sailing for foreign ports caused many losses. At last the situation became so serious that Dr. Dumba, the Austrian Ambassador, for

attempting to bring about strikes, was obliged to leave the country. Not long after, the military and naval aides of the German Ambassador were also forced to leave, on account of their pernicious activities. The relations between Germany and the United States gradually became more strained, and far-seeing men began to believe that it was only a question of time before America would be obliged to enter the war.

A phase of Turkish misrule in Asia Minor was brought to the attention of the world during this year. Among the peoples subject to the sultan were the Armenians, a peaceable race of Christians, occupying a stretch of territory lying along the southern shore of the Black Sea. Scarcely had Turkey entered the war when, on the pretext that the Armenians were disloyal, she began systematically to murder them. The aged and the men of military years were killed. The young women were sold into slavery. It is doubtful if there exists any record in history of a fouler crime than this slaughter of a Christian race by Germany's non-Christian allies. Germany possessed complete political and military control of the Turkish Government. She could have prevented these massacres had she seen fit to do so, but she countenanced them. Indeed, German officers even assisted in the terrible work. In a short time many hundreds of thousands of these unfortunate people had perished, and before the war ended the

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victims numbered over a million. The world stood aghast at this spectacle of the people of a so-called Christian nation aiding a non-Christian race to murder by wholesale those of their own faith.

The year 1915 came to a close upon a world filled with bitterness. Germany's might had won her great victories, and people everywhere began to fear that she would prove invincible. Her successes in Russia and Siberia, her unbroken western front, her challenge to Great Britain on the high seas through her submarines, her success in keeping America out of the war, all seemed to point to her ultimate triumph. Only the deep faith of the people of Great Britain, Italy, Belgium, and France enabled them to sustain the terrible losses, the bitter hardships, which fell to their lot. Russia was sustained by no such ideals. Her soldiers fought bravely, but they fought at the command of an autocratic ruler, and their hearts were not in the war. Already there were ominous signs of the great revolution which was soon to sweep over that country. Meanwhile, on the western front, both Germany and England were preparing mighty blows, the one against the French fortress of Verdun, the other against the German lines along the river Somme. The story of these two colossal battles constitutes the military history of the year 1916 on the western front.

CHAPTER XIV

VERDUN AND THE FIRST BATTLE OF THE SOMME

PERHAPS the greatest event in the history of the year 1916 was the Battle of Verdun. In its results it ranks with the Battle of the Marne. Had Verdun fallen, France would have fallen with it. Only the breasts of its heroic defenders stood against the concentrated might of Germany. For many months the flower of the German Army strove to batter down that blue-clad line; but although it wavered, it never broke. Before this grim and ancient fortress on the river Meuse half a million of the kaiser's soldiers fell, and almost as many Frenchmen, but Verdun stood like a rock, and with it France.

Looking at the map, one will see that the long battle-line crossing France from the west to the east ended at Verdun, where it turned south along the Meuse to Nañcy, Belfort, and the borders of Switzerland. Just below Verdun a long triangular section of German-held territory projected out from the German lines in a westerly direction across the Meuse, at St.-Mihiel, cutting the railroad from Verdun south. This projection, called the St.-Mihiel salient, we have referred to before,

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at the time of the first great German drive toward Paris in 1914.

The great German general staff was now headed by General von Falkenhayn, who had replaced von Moltke after the Battle of the Marne. As the Marne failure served to destroy von Moltke's military prestige, so that of von Falkenhayn was to find its grave before Verdun.

Just why the Germans decided to attack Verdun is not definitely known. It was a point of great natural strength, and one which the French were obliged to defend to the utmost, since it formed the corner, or elbow, where their east and west and north and south lines met. Had it fallen, the front in both directions would have crumbled, and all of eastern France would have been open to attack. Certainly the Germans expected to take it, or they would not have made the attempt. It is probable that General von Falkenhayn, chief of the general staff, and the crown-prince, who commanded the armies before Verdun, were annoyed because von Hindenburg and von Mackensen were winning all the laurels of the war in the East, and they determined to show the German people that they could do the same thing on the western front. The crown-prince was ambitious to shine as a military leader, but up to now he had won no victories. Doubtless the kaiser thought that a great success at Verdun would bolster up the young prince's waning military reputation.

The weakest point in the defense of Verdun was its rail communications. One line ran westward to Paris, but too close to the front. The line running south was, as we have said, cut by the westward sweep of the great St.-Mihiel salient. To bring up the enormous number of shells required in modern battles ample railroad facilities are needed. No doubt the German leaders took this weakness at Verdun into account.

The attack, launched in February, 1916, was preceded by the most tremendous artillery bombardment that the world had ever seen. All previous bombardments were as nothing to it. The Germans had brought up heavy artillery in such quantities that the massed guns were almost wheel to wheel. Thousands of light and heavy cannon poured hundreds of tons of steel upon the French defenses. But the result was not the same as it had been at Antwerp, or Liège, and for this there was a very good reason.

General Castelnau, in command of the French when the attack began, had learned the lesson which the fall of those great fortresses taught. He did not depend for defense upon the steel and concrete forts which surrounded Verdun, for he knew that the heavy German shells would soon render them useless. Instead, he had moved his own heavy guns to new positions, protected by thick embankments of earth, and he had also thrown line after line of trenches out beyond the

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fortifications, knowing, as we have said before, that in the new warfare the guns could no longer protect the infantry, but the infantry must protect the guns.

The effect of the bombardment upon the French trenches was devastating but not decisive. When one position became untenable, the men holding it fell back to another. When this had gone on as far as safety permitted, the French made counter-attacks and retook some of the trenches they had lost. Thus the Battle of Verdun consisted of a vast number of small battles, which continued day after day and night after night for many months.

The first German assaults, made with the utmost determination, resulted in considerable gains. The outlying French defenses to the north of the city on both sides of the river Meuse were captured, and gains were also made on the east. The demand for reinforcements, for supplies of every sort, on the part of the defenders, was so great that the rail communication soon proved insufficient. 'The French met the emergency with their usual skill. Motor-trucks of every sort, by the thousands, were hurried up and put into service. A continuous line of them filled the road coming up from the rear. Thousands of men, old soldiers unfit to enter the front lines, worked day and night keeping these roads in repair. Shells from the German heavy guns fell about them, great holes were blown in the roads, their surface was

ground to dust by the incessant traffic, but the line of trucks never stopped, the service never broke down. It was a splendid achievement. If the taxicabs of Paris saved that city at the Battle of the Marne, the motor-trucks of France saved Verdun.

A new commander, General Petain (afterward commander-in-chief of all the French armies and Marshal of France), was placed in charge. During the critical moments of the first German advances it seemed as though the city must fall. Attack had followed attack, until the armies of the crown-prince had advanced over seven miles, and reached the last line of French defenses. Fort Douaumont, one of the inner ring of forts, had fallen; the Germans were in sight of the city.

General Petain's first move was to deliver a series of swift counter-attacks, which drove the Germans back some distance. To him is credited the solving of the supply problem by the use of the motor-trucks. He inspired his soldiers by giving them as a watchword the famous phrase, "They shall not pass." And although hundreds of thousands of Frenchmen fell, the Germans did not pass. After the twenty-sixth of February, when Petain organized his defense, the progress of the Germans was much slower, and for every foot they gained they lost great numbers of men. About the hill of *Le Mort Homme* (Dead Man's Hill) and the heights adjoining it the struggle ebbed and

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flowed with almost unbelievable fury. Week after week these vital positions were fought over, changing hands sometimes within a few hours, until the ground was plowed by shells into heaps of scorched and blackened dust, in which lay the broken bodies of thousands and tens of thousands of men. The world had always said that the French were brilliant in attack, but lost heart when put on the defensive. The Battle of Verdun proved this to be an error. No troops in the world ever defended themselves with grimmer courage. After a battle which lasted nearly five months, and cost the Germans half a million men, the attempt to advance farther was given up, and Verdun was saved.

The Germans had other reasons than their repeated failures for giving up the attack. A new battle had begun, on the British front to the west, now known as the First Battle of the Somme. On the first of July the English, under General (later Field-Marshal) Sir Douglas Haig, who had succeeded General French as the British commander-in-chief, struck the German lines on a wide front north and south of the river Somme.

The British had been preparing for this attack all through the winter and spring of 1916, collecting great stores of guns and ammunition, and bringing to the front their newly trained men. They experienced many delays in this work of preparation, and were not entirely ready to begin the battle at the time the attack was made. But

the news from Verdun made quick action necessary. In spite of the heroic defense of the French troops, there was still danger. They were worn out. There were rumors that the crown-prince was preparing another and greater attack. The British drive along the Somme put an end to all such plans. Germany was now herself placed on the defensive, and was obliged to hurry many men from the front at Verdun in order to meet the new attack farther west.

The method adopted in 1916 to advance against fortified trench positions was to concentrate great quantities of artillery on a wide front, and then subject the opposing lines to a violent and long-continued bombardment. This was the method used by the Germans at Verdun, and had their attack taken place in more level country, it would probably have succeeded. Here along the Somme there was no rugged country, no great natural defenses, such as protected Verdun. The British believed that a "drum fire" bombardment with high-explosive shells, lasting for many days, would reduce the German trenches to ruins, and render their capture possible. The result was not all that they expected. The trenches with their wire entanglements were leveled, it is true, but the strong concrete forts, unless directly hit, were not injured, and the deep underground dugouts sheltered the Germans with their machine guns until the bombardment was over. Then they would come

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out, set up their machine guns behind broken walls, in shell-holes, or wherever else they could find shelter, and pour streams of bullets into the advancing enemy.

In spite of these obstacles the British and French made steady progress, although their losses were very heavy. Throughout the summer and autumn of 1916 they drove the enemy back, from one position to another, until their progress began to cause the German leaders anxiety. If the English were losing heavily, the Germans were doing the same. Meanwhile, as a result of his failure before Verdun, General von Falkenhayn had been relieved from the command of the great general staff and von Hindenburg, fresh from his victories in Russia, took his place.

Late in 1916 von Hindenburg made a novel and unexpected move. He knew that his armies were being slowly but steadily beaten in the Battle of the Somme, and that the British were ready to renew their drive with even grimmer determination as soon as the weather would permit in the spring. He therefore decided to make a great strategic retreat. Back of his lines he had had constructed a system of deep and formidable trenches, known as the "Hindenburg Line." This system of defenses was laid out by the most skillful engineers in Germany. Every natural obstacle, such as a hill, a river, a canal, was taken advantage of, to render the line absolutely proof

against attack. Enormous concrete dugouts, shelters, machine-gun positions were built. Tunnels, often miles long, were dug underground, so that troops might pass quickly from one point in the line to another without being exposed to shell-fire. Acres of barbed wire, strung on steel posts, and twisted about in every direction, were put up before the several lines of trenches. No effort, no cost was spared, to make this system of defenses the strongest in the world. All during the winter the Germans worked at it, and in March, 1917, when everything was ready, von Hindenburg swiftly withdrew his men from their advanced positions before the British lines to their new positions in the rear.

This, however, was not all that he did. When he drew back his armies to their new lines, he issued orders that the country over which they passed should be reduced to an absolute waste. The German troops carried out their orders to the letter. When they retired nothing was left. Every house, village, town was burnt or blown up. Roads were destroyed, bridges shattered, wells contaminated, trees of every sort, even the fruit trees in the French orchards, cut down; nothing was spared. When the German armies finally retired behind the Hindenburg Line the country before them for many miles was a desert. Von Hindenburg knew that it would require weeks, even months, for the French and British to con-

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struct roads, railways, bridges over this desolate waste. All their preparations for attacking his former lines were now rendered useless. Their huge stores of ammunition, their great guns, their miles and miles of light narrow-gage railroads, running everywhere behind the front to bring up ammunition and supplies, were all now of no value. Everything would have to be moved up, over a country almost impassable. By the time this could be done a large part of the spring and summer would be gone, and winter, with its early rains, would be at hand. It was a shrewd move, and one which enabled the Germans to prolong the war for many months. They knew, from their secret agents, that trouble was coming in Russia, and reasoned that if they could hold back the British and French during 1917, they could attack with greater forces later on. These forces they expected to bring from the Russian front.

The Hindenburg Line, they believed, could never be taken. To drive them out of France by the costly frontal attacks used by the British in the Battle of the Somme would, the Germans argued, require millions of men. Their experts said that before this could be accomplished the French and British armies would be exhausted. A new element, however, was entering the problem of trench warfare.

This was a form of armored automobile, known as the "tank." The reason for this name is a

curious one. The British had earlier in the war imported from America a large number of heavy tractors—that is, traction engines driven by gasoline, and used to haul guns and other heavy loads up to the front. These American tractors were what are known as “caterpillar” tractors, so called because their driving-wheels, instead of resting on the ground, ran on endless steel tracks or belts, so that these wheels were continually laying for themselves a broad track upon which they could pass over soft or rough ground, the track unrolling itself before the wheels, and being picked up after they had passed by the moving belt to which it was attached.

The value of these tractors in passing over the rough and broken ground between the trenches was at once recognized by the British, and they arranged to use them as engines of war. Their plan was to cover the body of the tractors with heavy armor, which should be proof against machine-gun fire, place machine guns inside them, and use them in attacking the enemy machine-gun positions or “nests” which had caused their advancing forces such great losses. Two additional wheels in the form of a trailer were added, to enable the machines to cross shell-holes and trenches, these trailers giving the tractors a much longer wheel base.

The construction of a large number of these engines of war was begun, and in order to pre-

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serve the utmost secrecy they were referred to, in the official records of the British War Department, as "tanks." The name was merely a blind, to conceal what was being done, but when the machines finally appeared on the battle-field, it clung to them, and they have been known as tanks ever since. They proved, before the end of the war, to be the final solution of the problem of successfully attacking trenches defended by machine-gun fire. When they first appeared on the front, at Courcellette, in the autumn of 1916, the Germans were absolutely terrified. The lumbering monsters, weighing many tons—rolling irresistibly forward over shell-holes and trenches, crushing down wire entanglements, spitting a hail of bullets—caused them to drop their rifles and flee in disorder. Only a well-directed shot from a field gun could put a tank out of action, and such moving targets, in the smoke and dust of battle, were very hard to hit.

Later on, both the French and the British built large numbers of these tanks. Some, of the heavy type, carried crews of six or eight men and were armed with small cannon for destroying opposing tanks or fortifications. Others, of a much lighter type, carried only two men, and were used along with infantry in attacking machine-gun positions, on account of their superior speed. These lighter tanks were known as "whippets."

The influence of the tanks, during the final

stages of the war, can scarcely be overestimated. The Germans built a few of them, but they were heavy and clumsy in design, and accomplished little of value. It was inevitable that the tanks should be of greater service to the Allies, who were on the offensive, than to the Germans, who were on the defensive. They were the final answer to the German machine gun.

CHAPTER XV

SEA POWER AND THE BATTLE OF JUTLAND

THE year 1916 witnessed a naval battle which, so far as the number and power of the ships engaged is concerned, was the greatest sea fight in history. Its results, however, were inconclusive; that is, the situation which existed before the battle was not altered in any degree because of its having been fought.

Before we take up the details of the battle itself, let us consider for a moment the question of sea power.

England, as has been said before, possessed when the war broke out the most powerful navy in the world, as Germany possessed the strongest army. The British relied on their fleet to protect them from invasion, and also to protect their immense sea-going trade.

Admiral Mahan, the great American naval strategist, long ago laid down the theory that control of the sea would in the long run win the world's wars. The present conflict has proved the truth of his statement. England's blockade had never relaxed its grip from the day war began. Germany could get no copper for her shells, no cotton for her ammunition, no rubber for her automobile-

truck tires, no meats, no food-stuffs, no wool for uniforms or clothing, no leather for shoes. The whole nation began to suffer for want of these things. Before the war ended the people of Germany were wearing paper clothing and wooden shoes, using iron tires on their trucks, and taking from the inhabitants of invaded countries even their copper cooking-utensils, to be used in making shells.

Yet all this terrific pressure upon the German nation was applied by a navy which had scarcely fired a shot. The British fleet was there—silent, watchful, always on guard—and the German merchant ships were rusting at anchor in their ports.

Even the great German battle fleet, the second largest in the world, lay at anchor in the naval bases of the Kiel Canal, powerless. Splendid ships, splendidly equipped as they were, the Germans knew that to attack the superior British fleet would result only in defeat.

There were many persons in Germany, however, who thought that the German fleet might happen upon only a part of the British fleet, which part they might hope to defeat. Also there was much talk of what the German submarines would do, in a naval battle. Zeppelins, too, were mentioned, which would hover above the battle area and drop bombs upon the opposing ships. Laymen who urged these things as points in Germany's favor did not realize that the British ships were well

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equipped with anti-aircraft guns (that is, guns mounted so as to be able to fire vertically into the air); that to hit a moving vessel with a bomb from a height of a mile or more is an exceedingly difficult operation; that England had as many submarines as Germany, and might be expected to make use of them, although the slow speed of such vessels would render them of little value on either side in a naval engagement; and, above all, that the British fleet was too ably commanded to make it likely that any part of it could be caught napping.

In May, 1916, however, the entire German fleet left port, and engaged in battle with the British.

Just why they did this is not known. The official German reports say that the fleet went out "on a mission to the north," but whatever that mission was, they did not accomplish it, since most of their vessels returned to port the following day. It is unlikely that they went out to meet the main British fleet, for as soon as they did meet it they fled back to their bases. Some great and powerful vessels were lost on both sides, and the Germans claimed a victory; but it is now known that they suffered far more heavily than they admitted at the time the battle was fought, and the fact that they never ventured out again, but left the British in control of the North Sea, is sufficient proof that whatever victory there was did not lie on their side. Captain Persius, the German naval critic

(writing in the Berlin "Tageblatt" after the close of the war), admitted that the German losses were vastly greater than the government had allowed to become known, and that the entire fleet was so crippled that it was unable to venture to sea for many months. Certainly the German losses were far heavier than was supposed at the time; yet they were not as heavy as they should have been, considering the immense superiority of the British; in fact, many naval experts feel that had the British commander, Admiral Jellicoe, shown greater initiative, greater dash, he might have captured or destroyed the entire German fleet.

Whether or not this is true will always be a matter of opinion. Admiral Jellicoe had upon his shoulders a vast responsibility. A single false move, an incautious advance into a mine-field, might have cost him many powerful vessels, possibly endangered the whole Allied cause. He showed caution at a time when it would have been folly to take risks. His victory, as has been said, lay in the fact that the British control of the seas was not affected in any way by the outcome of the battle.

The fight began early in the afternoon of May 31, and continued throughout a large part of the night. A squadron of battle-cruisers, great vessels carrying guns as heavy as those on most battle-ships, of high speed but only moderately armored, was proceeding eastward in the North Sea,

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under the command of Admiral Beatty, when smoke was observed on the eastern horizon, and one of Beatty's scout-ships, far in advance, reported a squadron of German battle-cruisers going north. The British at once attacked, Admiral Beatty having six battle-cruisers under his command, while Admiral von Hipper, the German commander, had only five. Von Hipper, as soon as the British came into view, turned south, probably with the idea of luring his opponents into the midst of the main German battle fleet under Admiral von Scheer, which he knew was close behind him.

When the Germans turned south, Beatty followed, the two fleets running along side by side at comparatively short range. To the consternation of the English, two of their finest and newest battle-cruisers, the *Indefatigable* and *Queen Mary*, were quickly sunk, although whether by gun-fire, mines, or torpedoes has never been ascertained. This left Beatty with only four cruisers to the Germans' five. British reinforcements, however, quickly came up, in the shape of four super-dreadnoughts of the *Queen Elizabeth* class, mounting 15-inch guns, under the command of Rear-Admiral Thomas. Thus the Germans were again outnumbered. But soon there emerged from the haze to the south the entire German battle-ship fleet under von Scheer. Then the British ships turned to the

north, not with the intention of escaping, as they remained within range, but hoping in their turn to lure the Germans northward toward the point where the British main battle-ship fleet under Admiral Jellicoe was located. Admiral Beatty had meanwhile sent messages by wireless to Jellicoe, telling him of the presence of the Germans, and the great British battle fleet, far stronger than the combined fleets of von Hipper and von Scheer, was hurrying southward at full speed.

The Germans followed Beatty with his four cruisers and Thomas with his four battle-ships, and the two fleets kept up a running fight, with the odds greatly favoring the Germans. Beatty's vessels being the faster, drew ahead, and presently he and Thomas were able to throw their ships across the front of the advancing German column. As a result, Admiral von Hipper's flagship, the *Lützow*, which was in the lead, was put out of action, and the German Admiral transferred his flag to the next ship, the *Moltke*. The *Lützow* later sank.

The first vessels of the oncoming British fleet to arrive were three older-type battle-cruisers under Admiral Hood. They at once entered the battle, but scarcely had they done so when Hood's flagship, the *Invincible*, burst into flames and sank. The concentrated fire of the whole German battle-ship fleet was now poured upon the four remain-

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ing super-dreadnoughts and the six remaining battle-cruisers under Thomas and Beatty. Admiral Hood had gone down with his ship.

At this juncture the main British battle fleet under Admiral Jellicoe arrived on the scene of action, and once more the superiority lay with the British. By this time, however, it was growing dark, and the weather had become thick and hazy, making it difficult to tell friend from foe. The Germans, seeing that they were outnumbered, turned sharply to the west, while Jellicoe continued south, hoping to get between the German fleet and its base, and thus cut it off and either capture or destroy it.

Throughout the early part of the night there was furious fighting; many torpedoes were fired, and swarms of destroyers came into action. Three more cruisers—the *Defense*, the *Black Prince*, and the *Warrior*—were sunk on the British side, but they were light vessels, thinly armored, and of little value. On the German side a battle-ship, the *Pommern*, went down, together with the light cruisers *Rostock*, *Elbing*, *Frauenlob*, and *Wiesbaden*. The British and Germans each lost a number of torpedo-boat destroyers. These are the losses admitted on the two sides. The British statement was correct, that of the Germans was not. The men of the British fleet claimed to have seen three more battle-ships of the largest size and another battle-cruiser sunk, and Captain

Persius, mentioned before, admitted that the losses of the Germans had for political reasons been hidden. The announcement given to the public the next day, however, made it appear that the British had lost twice the tonnage and three times the men that the Germans had lost, and the reputation of the English navy suffered greatly in the public mind.

The most astounding feature of the battle, however, was that during the night, short in these latitudes at this time of year, the German fleet was able to elude Admiral Jellicoe's vigilance, and return to its base, in spite of the fact that the British vessels were between it and port. It is on this account that the English admiral has been criticized, but his reasons for not exposing his fleet to unknown dangers were doubtless those given earlier in this chapter.

This great battle, which is called the Battle of Jutland because it was fought off the coast of the Danish peninsula of Jutland, at the extreme eastern end of the North Sea, was the last naval engagement of any magnitude during the war. When the German fleet next came out of port, it was to surrender ignominiously to the war fleets of the Allies and America.

CHAPTER XVI

RUSSIA, AUSTRIA, AND ITALY IN 1916

WE left the Russians, at the close of the year 1915, standing at bay along their thousand-mile line from Riga to the Rumanian border. The Germans made many attempts during the winter and spring of 1916 to break through, especially at the city of Dvinsk, south of Riga, on the river Dvina, but all of these efforts failed. The Russian armies had been supplied with arms and ammunition, their transport system had been improved, and they showed great activity all along the line. Early in June they began a formidable offensive on a front which gradually increased until it extended from the neighborhood of Pinsk, in the Pripet Marshes, southward to the Rumanian border. This was the portion of the eastern front held by the Austrians, and under the determined onslaughts of the newly organized Russian armies it slowly began to give way.

The entire operation was under the command of General Brusiloff, one of the most brilliant of the Russian commanders, and his successes soon attracted world-wide attention. So rapid was the advance of the Russians along this great front of

two hundred and fifty miles that by June 13 they had captured one hundred and twenty thousand prisoners and vast quantities of artillery, ammunition, and supplies. A day later the number of prisoners had been increased to one hundred and fifty thousand. By June 17 they had again captured Czernowitz, the capital of Bukowina, the Austrian province lying just to the north of the frontiers of Rumania. Before July 1 the prisoners alone lost by the Austrians amounted to nearly two hundred and twenty thousand, while their killed and wounded had reached huge figures. During July the Russians continued to sweep ahead with even greater vigor, and soon had conquered the Province of Bukowina, once more reached the Carpathian Mountains, threatening the passes into Hungary, while an advance of over forty miles, further to the north, made the position of Lemberg perilous. This great drive by the Russians under General Brusiloff was one of the finest Allied successes during the war, and by it the Austrians lost in killed, wounded, and missing at least seven hundred and fifty thousand men. Their losses in prisoners alone totaled four hundred thousand, while the artillery, ammunition, and supplies which passed into the hands of the Russians reached vast figures. It is said that the great drive came to a halt because of lack of ammunition, the immense demands of modern battles having used up the reserve supplies accumulated

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by the Russians during the winter. Another reason may be found in the fact that Germany once more came to Austria's aid, by sending troops and munitions of war to the front in Galicia for the defense of Lemberg. There was much heavy fighting all along the eastern front during the remainder of the year, but the situation was not materially changed.

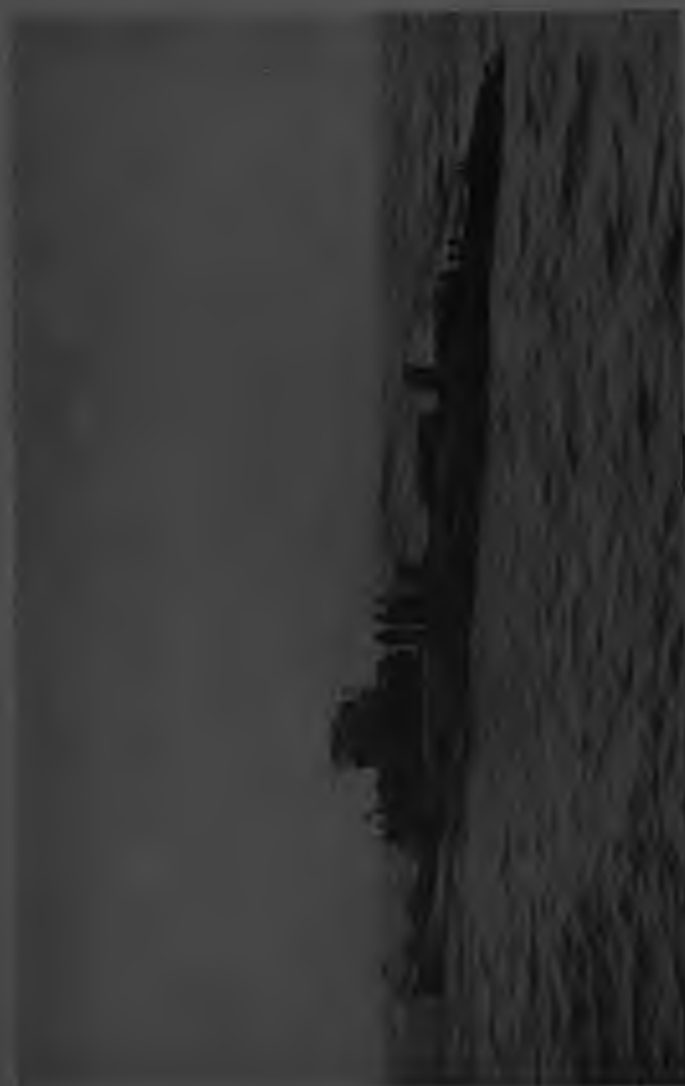
Before Brusiloff's drive Austria was for a time successful against Italy in the west. We have told how the Italians had undertaken to protect their left or northern flank, while attacking along the Isonzo, by carrying on a difficult campaign to secure the passes through the mountains leading into Austria. This campaign had made slow but continued progress, and the Austrian leaders determined to stop it. They therefore gathered a great force in the Trentino district, about Trent, and in the spring of 1916, as soon as the snow had thawed, descended like a thunderbolt upon the Italian armies. The attack was prepared by intense artillery fire, and at first was very successful. The Italians, taken by surprise, were driven from position after position in the mountains, won at great cost during the previous year, and by June the Austrian armies were almost through the mountainous country and ready to descend upon the Italian plains. Italy was in a panic. A little more success, and her armies along the Isonzo might be attacked in the flank, their lines of com-

munication cut, and all of northern Italy conquered by the invaders. But just then the great Russian drive under General Brusiloff began in turn to render affairs critical for Austria. She was forced, just when success seemed within her grasp, to withdraw troops from the Italian front in order to save her armies in Bukowina and Galicia. At the same time the Italians counter-attacked and before long they were making steady progress back to the positions in the mountains from which they had so suddenly been thrown.

A few weeks later, in August, the Italian armies along the Isonzo, which had so long attempted without success to capture the defenses of Gorizia, launched a new attack against that city. Monte San Michele, the key position, was stormed after a terrific bombardment, and taken, and Gorizia fell, with fifteen thousand prisoners and great quantities of stores of all sorts. It was the first real success which had crowned Italy's efforts since her entrance into the war, and her people were jubilant. The advance along the Carso, the rugged plateau leading southward toward Trieste, was continued with renewed vigor, and the outer defenses of the city were placed under bombardment by English monitors, mounting heavy guns, which had come into the Adriatic to assist in the attack. But the Austrians resisted bravely, and the close of the year found the Italians very little nearer Trieste than they had been in August. In

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another direction, however, they made more decided progress. The fall of Gorizia opened the way for an attack to the northeast, along the Bainsizza Plateau, in the direction of Laibach. Only the rough country of the Julian Alps barred their way to an advance upon Vienna itself. The prospect of thus carrying the war into Austria was an alluring one, and later on, as the Italians progressed, many of the Allied leaders urged that men and guns be sent to aid the Italians in such an undertaking. But other and most unexpected events, early in 1917, prevented this plan from being carried out.



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French Pictorial Service

RUINED FRENCH ORCHARDS

Showing the wanton destruction practised by the Germans during their retreat to the Hindenburg line in 1916-17

CHAPTER XVII

RUMANIA AND THE NEAR EAST IN 1916

A NEW country entered the ranks of the Allies in August, 1916. This country was Rumania, the most northerly of the Balkan states, situated for the most part north of the Danube River. As may be seen from the map, Rumania at this time was shaped something like the letter J, part of its territory extending north and south, the other part east and west. These two parts of the country, like two great arms, nearly surrounded the Austrian province of Transylvania, but were cut off from it by the Carpathian Mountains. Rumania entered the war for reasons similar to those that brought Italy in; she wished to bring under her rule large areas of Austria which were inhabited by Rumanians. This race is of Latin origin, Rumania having once been a Roman colony. The Rumanians differ greatly from the neighboring Magyars, or Slavs. However, as we have seen so often before in the course of the great war, it had made no difference to the autocratic rulers of Austria that Transylvania rightly belonged to Rumania, that the inhabitants of Transylvania had the right to say by whom they should be governed. The boundary between Rumania and Austria was

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fixed along the Carpathians because these mountains formed a military barrier; in other words, made the Austrian frontier safe. But the Rumanians in Transylvania sang their folk-songs and dreamed of freedom as so many other oppressed races were dreaming, all over Europe. "Why," they said, "should we pay taxes to the Emperor of Austria, when we do not want his government and are not fairly represented in it?" It was the same question that caused our American forefathers to declare, "No taxation without representation," and free themselves from the rule of England.

Rumania entered the war at this particular time because of the great success which had attended General Brusiloff's drive against the Austrians. As we have seen in a previous chapter, the Russian armies from the Pripet Marshes to the Rumanian border had swept far to the west, and now stood along the Carpathian Mountains at Rumania's frontier. They expected to advance through these mountains into southern Austria, and the Rumanians planned to link their armies up with the Russians, and advance with them. The Rumanian armies numbered about six hundred thousand men, with reserves of perhaps an equal number. Their assistance, it was expected, would add greatly to the strength of the Allied cause. From a military standpoint their decision to enter the war at this time was sound.

From a political standpoint, however, it was a tragedy, although the Rumanian leaders could not have been expected to know it. Rumania was sacrificed as a result of a wide-spread campaign of treachery which was going on in Russia. As has been pointed out before, Germany did not depend upon the might of her armies alone to gain her victories. Her secret agents were at work everywhere—in Italy, in France, in the United States, in Russia—trying by means of bribery, of corruption of every sort, to disorganize the power of her enemies. Her efforts in Russia were beginning to bear fruit. A new Russian premier was in office, Boris Stürmer, a man of German blood and sympathies. He induced Rumania to enter the war by promises of Russian assistance, which promises were never kept. When the Rumanian armies advanced into Transylvania they expected the armies of Russia to advance with them, but the Russians did not move, and Rumania was left to carry on the fight alone. It is highly probable that the whole scheme originated in the office of the German general staff, whose power in Russian affairs was increasing daily, and was soon to plunge that unhappy country into a frightful revolution.

The Rumanian plan of campaign was simple, and at first proved successful. The shape of the country, as has been pointed out, was such that by advancing through the Carpathians westward

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from her north-and-south frontier, and northward from her east-and-west frontier, she could enclose, as within two out-reaching arms, all that part of Transylvania lying between them. On August 27 the Rumanian armies were on the move, and within four days had advanced far into Austrian territory and taken the strongly defended town of Orsova. The Allies were jubilant.

One of the singular features of the Rumanian advance into Transylvania is the fact that she left her southern flank, which borders on Bulgaria, virtually undefended. It has been asserted that an agreement existed by which Bulgaria was not to attack her. If such an agreement was ever made, it was very soon broken, for on September 3 a powerful army of Bulgarians, Germans, and Turks, led by General von Mackensen, the conqueror of Galicia and Serbia, crossed the Rumanian frontier and advanced into the Dobrudja. This part of Rumania is a long, narrow strip of territory lying south of the river Danube, and, as has previously been pointed out, was in part taken from Bulgaria by Rumania after the second Balkan War. Now Bulgaria saw her opportunity to get it back.

Von Mackensen and his forces advanced at once toward the great Cernavoda Bridge across the Danube, the only bridge over the river east of Belgrade, and soon was in possession of its southern end. Meanwhile, the Rumanians, advancing with

great success, reached Hermannstadt, and now controlled about a third of Transylvania. To protect their southern flank, they sent forces of considerable size into the Dobrudja, and with some assistance from Russian troops succeeded in driving von Mackensen back. The Allies at Saloniki, far to the south, had meanwhile started a spirited attack against the Bulgarians, and some of the Bulgarian troops with von Mackensen were sent south to assist in repelling it.

But now a new factor was to come into the situation. The Germans, who had been waiting for the opportune moment to crush Rumania, had been quietly sending forces to the assistance of the Austrians. In fact, the rapid Austrian retreat was part of their plan. A powerful army was assembled north of Hermannstadt, under the command of General von Falkenhayn, the former chief of the German general staff, whose failure at Verdun, as we have seen, had cost him his position. Once this army began operations, the fate of Rumania was sealed. On the twenty-sixth of September the Austro-German forces began to advance, and by the middle of October the Rumanians had lost virtually all the territory they had gained, and were back in the passes of the Carpathians through which they had advanced. Had Russia, at this time, sent an army to the west across the Carpathians into Hungary, they could have gotten behind von Falkenhayn's forces, cut his communica-

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tions, and brought about a great German defeat. But the Russians did not move.

Fighting in the Dobrudja had meanwhile become very severe, with successes on both sides. The Rumanians had blown up the great bridge over the Danube, and it seemed impossible for von Mackensen to cross. At this point the Danube is very wide. The Rumanians hoped to prevent a crossing, but the German strategy soon dashed their hopes. Von Falkenhayn, who had broken through the mountain passes in western Rumania, made a rapid advance southward across the east and west leg of that country, reached the north shore of the Danube, drove the Rumanian forces eastward, and effected a junction with the armies of von Mackensen on the other side of the river.

From this point on the Rumanian case was hopeless. The two powerful Teutonic armies swept eastward and on the sixth of December entered Bucharest, the Rumanian capital. The remainder of the Rumanian armies retreated into the northeastern part of the country, the capital was moved to Jassy, near the Russian frontier, and the German advance was stopped along the line of the river Sereth. In the few months that Rumania had been in the war she had lost two thirds of her territory, including her capital, two hundred thousand prisoners, and a great number of killed and wounded. What was most important of all, she had provided the Teutonic allies with vast new

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territories from which to draw supplies of wheat, oil, and many other commodities sorely needed in Germany, and also given them absolute control of navigation on the river Danube. Rumania's fate was tragic.

CHAPTER XVIII

OTHER EVENTS DURING 1916

IN January, 1916, as a result of the great Austro-German drive through Serbia, another of the Balkan states succumbed to the power of Germany. This was Montenegro, which in spite of a brave but hopeless fight was soon overrun by Austrian forces. Her king fled to Italy. Thus, at the beginning of this year, the only foothold which the Allies still retained in the Balkans was the small area of territory around Saloniki, and the sympathy of a part of the people of Greece. Only the presence of Allied war-ships before Athens, and the threat of cutting off the importation of food, kept King Constantine and his German wife from throwing Greece into the war on the German side.

In the same month England abandoned the volunteer system of recruiting and adopted compulsory service. This action was not taken because the English had failed to support their country. Five million men had volunteered, but a portion had held back, and so great was the need for more men that it was determined to "round up" the slackers.

A little later Grand Admiral von Tirpitz, head of the Pan-German party, was forced to resign, owing to the failure of his submarine campaign to starve England into submission. The British Navy had been fairly successful in combating the under-sea boats. Small craft of every description swarmed in the waters about the British Isles. Huge nets were sunk, extending for many miles across the routes usually traveled by the German U-boats. Floats on the surface showed when a submarine had become entangled in these nets, whereupon the destroyers on watch dropped depth-bombs, so constructed as to explode when they reached a certain depth. In this and other ways many submarines were destroyed. Figures at the close of the war showed that out of three hundred and sixty submarines, Germany lost over two hundred as a result of the activities of the Allied navies. Von Tirpitz's place was taken by Admiral von Capelle, and almost at once, in the month of April, a cross-channel passenger boat, the *Sussex*, was torpedoed, with considerable loss of life. There were Americans aboard, some of whom were injured.

The attack upon the *Sussex* resulted in immediate diplomatic protests by the United States Government. Germany, as usual, attempted to quibble. First she said that the vessel had struck a mine. When fragments of a torpedo were found aboard, she asserted that the submarine com-

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mander had mistaken the vessel for a war-ship, a claim absurd on its face. Finally, when informed by the United States that if another passenger or freight vessel were sunk without warning the government would at once break off diplomatic relations, Germany admitted that she had broken her previous promises, but once more promised to carry on her submarine warfare in a humane and civilized manner. She reserved, however, the right to break this promise when it suited her purposes to do so. Meanwhile, the construction of a great fleet of large ocean-going submarines was being pushed by Admiral von Capelle. Germany was merely playing with the United States in order to gain time to complete these ships.

During the early part of this year, Russia, in spite of her long-drawn battle-front at home, began a campaign in a new area. A glance at the map will show that the Russian frontier between the Black and Caspian seas crosses a narrow neck of land close to the Caucasus Mountains. To the west of these mountains, along the southern shores of the Black Sea, lies Armenia, the scene of the terrible massacres of which we have already spoken. A large Russian force, under the command of the Grand-Duke Nicholas, who had been deprived of his command of the Russian armies after the retreat from Warsaw in 1915, advanced through the Caucasus Mountains in February, 1916, and moved westward along the Black Sea

toward the powerful Turkish fortress of Erzerum. The country is rough and mountainous, and almost without railroad facilities, but the grand-duke, one of the most brilliant of the Russian leaders, attained a great success. Within a few weeks he laid siege to Erzerum, and captured it in five days. This astonishing result may be appreciated when it is realized that the city was protected by eighteen powerful forts, mounting over a thousand guns, many of them of the latest Krupp pattern. The Turks lost close to twenty thousand prisoners, and the Russian forces swept rapidly along the shores of the Black Sea toward Trebizond. Here, however, the Turks made a strong stand, and prevented any further Russian advance.

Toward the southwest, also, the armies of the grand-duke made rapid advances, forces of considerable size being sent into northern Persia. As the map will show, the direction of these advances was toward the Tigris River and Bagdad, against which the British-Indian forces were also moving northward, up the river from Basra. We have referred in a previous chapter to this advance in Mesopotamia.

Had the British advance succeeded, there is no doubt that British forces would have been able to effect a junction with the Russians, and probably have driven the Turks out of both Mesopotamia and Armenia. But the British suffered a severe reverse. General Townshend, driving the Turks

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before him, had worked his way, after the severest kind of fighting, to the town of Kut-el-Amara, situated on the Tigris not far south of Bagdad. Capturing this place, he advanced to Cetusphon, only eighteen miles below the city. Here the British were defeated, owing, it is said, to lack of a supply of water. The more probable reason is that the Turkish forces greatly outnumbered them. General Townshend, retreating to Kut-el-Amara, was surrounded there, and the Turks laid siege to the place. The siege began early in December, 1915, and lasted for many months.

The British sent new forces up the Tigris under command of General Aylmer. They reached the vicinity of Kut-el-Amara, after hard fighting, early in March, 1916, but although only seven miles from General Townshend's position, were unable to relieve him. Until the end of April desperate attempts were made to reach the now starving English forces bottled up in Kut, but all failed, and the coming of the hot and rainy season soon put an end to operations. On the twenty-ninth of April General Townshend surrendered with nine thousand men. Many had died from fever, starvation, or the constant bombardment of the Turks. This defeat, small in a material way, greatly damaged the military reputation of the British among the native population of the country.

The advance of the Russians through northern Persia had meanwhile progressed through Hama-

dan to Kermanshah, not much over a hundred miles from Bagdad. Some Cossack cavalry managed to get through the mountain passes and established communications with the British forces on the Tigris, but their number was too small to have any military significance, and the project of linking up the British and Russian forces in Mesopotamia was for the time being abandoned.

In France the close of the year 1916 saw some brilliant work on the part of the French under General Petain at Verdun. In a series of sharp advances they retook, between October and December, nearly all the ground they had lost to the armies of the German crown-prince earlier in the year. Their losses were very small, and they captured many prisoners. These attacks by General Petain threw the Germans once more back to the positions from which they had made their first attack, and placed Verdun out of all danger.

In another part of the world the Allies were gaining successes of great importance. In Africa Germany had lost the Cameroons to combined French and British forces; German Southwest Africa had surrendered to British South African forces under General Botha, who had fought against England in the Boer War; while German East Africa was almost entirely in Allied hands. The great colonial empire of Germany had disappeared.

In November, 1916, the Emperor of Austria,

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Francis Joseph, died, but his death had no effect upon the situation. His successor, the Emperor Karl, young and weak, was entirely under the domination of the kaiser and the military party in Germany, and it appeared to outside observers that after the death of the aged emperor Austria was more completely under the control of Germany than before.

The closing days of the year 1916 found Germany if anything more powerful, more confident of victory, than she had been at any time since the beginning of the war. This confidence was based not alone upon her conquests in Russia and the Balkan States, but upon a sure knowledge of what was soon to happen in the empire of the czar.

CHAPTER XIX

UNCIVILIZED WARFARE

THE horrors which had characterized the carrying on of the war during 1914 and 1915 were increased in the year 1916. Not only did the Armenian massacres continue, but the air raids over London and Paris, and particularly over the former city, began to assume serious proportions. Night after night giant Zeppelins or the swifter airplanes flew over the city, dropping bombs and killing many hundreds of persons. The English, however, grimly set their teeth and determined to "carry on." The sinking of hospital ships continued, and the cruelties visited upon the crews of torpedoed merchant vessels became more atrocious. In more than one case submarine commanders ordered the victims to leave their boats and assemble on the U-boat's deck, and then, after having rendered the life-boats useless, submerged, leaving the unfortunates on deck struggling in the sea. Of the crew of the *Belgian Prince* but two survived to tell the tale. Rafts and boats containing the survivors of torpedoed ships were run down and sunk without the slightest reason, and the losses to non-combatant seamen soon ran into the thousands.

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It was not upon human beings alone that the Germans proceeded to vent their wrath. Works of art throughout Belgium and northern France were destroyed with a ruthlessness worthy of the ancient Huns, and it was not without reason that the civilized world came to look upon the Germans as a race of savages.

Perhaps the most notable case of this kind was the destruction of the Cathedral at Rheims. In this famous old Gothic structure the kings of France had long been crowned. Here Joan of Arc brought the Dauphin Charles to his coronation, and throughout the world the building was looked upon with reverence as a splendid example of early Gothic art.

The Germans, whose lines were for a long time located but a short distance to the north of Rheims, contended that the French were employing the towers of the cathedral as an artillery observation post, and while this was repeatedly shown to be untrue, the Germans used it as an excuse for subjecting the city of Rheims, and particularly the cathedral, to an almost daily bombardment. As a result the structure was terribly damaged. The wonderful stained-glass windows, created by artists of the Middle Ages, were shattered; the priceless carvings and statues with which the building was ornamented were destroyed; the great vaulted roof of the nave was burned and wrecked, and at the close of the war the entire structure was little



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GERMAN SHELL BURSTING UPON THE CATHEDRAL AT RHEIMS

This was early in the war; the building was later on almost completely destroyed



W. H. Foreatt & Co. Photographers
 CAPTAIN FOREATT



W. H. Foreatt & Co. Photographers
 EDITH CAVELL

more than a hopeless ruin. No military excuse can ever relieve the Germans of responsibility for this crowning act of vandalism. Apparently they gloried in the destruction of great works of art. Field-Marshal von Hindenburg declared on one occasion that all the works of art in the world were not worth the life of a single German soldier.

Two great crimes against humanity stand out from among the bloody deeds by which the Germans were disgracing their name as a civilized nation. They are mentioned not because they were any more atrocious than hundreds of others but because they attracted such wide-spread attention.

The first of these was the execution of Edith Cavell, an English nurse, in October, 1915. Miss Cavell practised her profession in the hospitals of Brussels, nursing Belgians, Germans, or patients of any other nationality with the same tender care. She felt deep sympathy for the suffering people of Belgium, and foolishly allowed her sympathies to cause her to assist certain Belgian refugees to escape across the frontier into Holland. Germany had forbidden any one to leave Belgium, and Miss Cavell was guilty of assisting in the breaking of this regulation. She was certainly not guilty of anything sufficiently serious to warrant her death; yet the Germans tried and condemned her for espionage, and in spite of the efforts made by Brand Whitlock, the American Minister to Bel-

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gium, and by others, all mercy was denied her and she was shot as a common spy. It is even said that the volley fired by the soldiers who were detailed to execute her did not cause her death, and that she was finally killed by a pistol in the hands of a German officer. This brutal and senseless murder of a woman who, whatever her faults may have been, had acted from motives of humanity, and was in no way deserving of death, caused a thrill of horror to sweep over the civilized world.

A second official murder, no less atrocious, was the shooting of Captain Fryatt, a British sea captain, at Bruges, in July, 1916. The reasons for Captain Fryatt's execution were these: The German Government, filled with some strange notion that a merchant ship which resisted a submarine was acting illegally, since it was not a ship of war, gave notice of its intention to treat the masters of such ships as criminals, who would be dealt with as non-combatants on land are dealt with in case they fire on armed forces. It is true that a citizen not in uniform who fires on enemy troops may in certain circumstances be shot for so doing, but it was preposterous for Germany to apply this rule to the captain of a steamship who might resist being torpedoed by a submarine, not only because the submarine was itself acting illegally in torpedoing the vessel without first removing to a place of safety its passengers and crew, but also because it was the duty of the cap-

tain of such a vessel to do all in his power to save the lives of those aboard his ship. The whole affair was merely another attempt on Germany's part to frighten the world, but the hardy sea captains of Great Britain were not to be intimidated by any such means, and refused to stand calmly by while German U-boats sank their ships and drowned or murdered their crews. Having no other means of defense, they tried to ram and sink the attacking submarines whenever possible. This Captain Fryatt had attempted on one occasion, with the result that he escaped with his vessel, but the Germans then and there marked him for death. Not long afterward his ship, the *Brussels*, leaving Rotterdam, was captured by German destroyers and taken to Zeebrugge, on the coast of Belgium, under an armed guard. Captain Fryatt was given a mock trial, in which he had no opportunity to defend himself, and was then placed before a firing-squad and shot.

When we remember that from the very beginning of the war the Germans had been guilty of the most unbelievable cruelties, that they had openly and repeatedly violated every rule of civilized warfare, this murder of a peaceful English sailor for trying to save the lives of those entrusted to his care will always stand out as one of the most amazing pieces of hypocrisy of which even the hypocritical government of Germany was guilty.

CHAPTER XX

THE BEGINNING OF THE YEAR 1917

THE two great outstanding events of the year 1917 were the collapse of Russia and the entry of the United States of America into the war. These two occurrences, while radically different in their nature, had behind them the same cause: each represented an attack upon autocracy, a movement toward the preservation of the liberty, the democracy of the world.

In Russia the movement was directed against forces within—the czar and the corrupt imperial and military court which surrounded him. In America the movement was against autocracy without—the autocracy of the kaiser and his party, which sought to enslave the world.

Whatever may have been the motives which actuated the rulers of the nations of Europe when the war broke out in 1914, it had become clear to people everywhere, by the beginning of the year 1917, that the great war was something more than a mere fight between Germany and England to control the trade of the world. It began to develop slowly, yet with ever-increasing force, that this huge conflict was in reality a revolution, that a world movement for the liberty of the people was in progress, similar in some respects to the

French Revolution. It was as though the latter, checked for a hundred years after the downfall of Napoleon by the manipulations of the crowned heads of Europe at the Peace of Vienna, had once more broken out, with every prospect of spreading to the ends of the earth. The bomb which killed an Austrian archduke in 1914 awoke not only the people of Serbia to resistance against their enslavement by the autocratic rulers of Austria, but also the public in many other parts of the world, whose resentment against oppression, whose desire for self-government began to take form, to seek expression.

In Poland, torn into three parts and held under Russian, German, and Austrian rule; in Lithuania; in Finland; in Bohemia and the other alien provinces of Austria-Hungary; in the Armenian and Arabian provinces of Turkey; in Russia; even in Germany itself, people began to say to one another: "What use have we for these puppet kings and emperors, with their ridiculous claims to divine right to rule us, their pretenses to alliance with God? That sort of thing may have been well enough in the dark ages, when the people were so ignorant that they knew only enough to till the soil, or fight for some king or ruler when they were commanded to do so. But in the twentieth century such ideas are absurd, mere relics of feudalism, of the period when the common people were regarded as so many cattle, to be used as beasts

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of burden in times of peace, or as cannon fodder in times of war, in order that these self-elected rulers might live in luxury and idleness. We claim the right to elect our own rulers; to make them responsible to us for their acts; in other words, to rule ourselves. All this talk of a divine right to rule us, of an alliance with God, is only a sham, to make us believe that it is our religious duty to submit, to do as we are told, so as to make ruling that much easier for those who have placed themselves in power over us. They know that the people are in their hearts religious, and they are using that fact to take advantage of us. We refuse to submit to it any longer."

In England all such pretensions on the part of the king had long since been swept away. The barons of England when they forced King John to sign the Magna Charta, Cromwell when he fought the power of Charles I, had established the right of the people to rule, in England, just as Washington established it in America and the leaders of the French Revolution established it in France. Great Britain, it is true, exercised authority over vast populations in Egypt, in India; but her rule was a beneficent one, bringing justice and law to races not yet sufficiently educated to govern themselves. The United States governed under similar conditions in the Philippines, giving freedom and prosperity to a race which under the autocratic rule of Spain had known only wretchedness,

ignorance, and slavery. Only in Ireland, with rankling memories of past oppression, was there any great dissatisfaction with English rule; yet in Ireland the people not only had the same democratic government that Scotland and Wales enjoyed, but had even been offered a separate or home government of their own. In Italy, as in Belgium, a democratic king ruled under the constitutional authority of a parliament elected by the people. But in Russia, as in Germany and Austria-Hungary, the ruler had the sole power to declare war, and the people had virtually no voice in the government.

The Germans, when the Allied nations declared that they were fighting for the liberties of the people, laughed with scorn, and pointed to Russia, one of the most autocratic governments in the world. To this the Allies could make no reply, until the year 1917, and then, curiously enough, the autocratic rule of the czar was overthrown largely because of efforts made by Germany herself.

We have seen in a previous chapter that the German Government, through its efficient and wide-spread system of agents and spies, had for a long time been trying to corrupt the Russian military leaders, so as to render the Russian Army an easy victim to her own. At the same time tremendous efforts were made to spread dissatisfaction among the Russian soldiers and people by

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preaching revolt to them, and inciting them against the rule of the czar. The German politicians did not in the least desire to see Russia become a republic. They had no real sympathy with the revolutionary party opposed to the czar, but they thought that if they could overthrow the existing government Russia would lie before them, a vast and ungoverned country, huge yet helpless, which they might seize and make use of to further their own interests. Russia's grain, oil, metals, cattle would all be theirs for the taking, and the great general staff dreamed of new armies, made up of millions of Russians, with which, under the iron rule of Prussian officers, they might yet conquer the world. Already German scheming had brought about the defeat of Rumania. During the winter of 1917 many thinking persons began to fear that Germany might gain by trickery and fraud the victory which she had so far failed to gain by force of arms.

But a stronger force was at work than any which the Germans understood—the demand of a great people for freedom. For many years there had existed throughout Russia a revolutionary party, animated by a desire for liberty, but opposing to the violent and cruel methods of the governmental police, methods of retaliation equally violent and cruel. These anarchists called themselves “Reds,” since the color red has for a long time been associated with those who aim to secure lib-

erty by the indiscriminate shedding of blood. These Reds did not desire to fight Germany; in fact, they felt no sympathy with either side in the war, contending that it was brought about and carried on by ruling classes to which they were opposed. Ignorantly confusing liberty with license, foolishly believing that instead of absolute and autocratic rule they should have no rule, no government whatever, they were quite as ready to use the bomb against the better classes in Germany as they were to use it against those of their own country. Thus Germany loosed forces which before long were to get beyond her control. In Biblical language, she was sowing the wind, and was soon to reap the whirlwind.

When a downtrodden people, especially a morbid and excitable people such as the Russians, turns against its rulers, the movement is certain to get beyond bounds. The same thing occurred when the people of France turned against the grinding rule of the Bourbons, and waded through rivers of blood before a real government by the people was established. Germany, fomenting revolt in Russia, was like a child playing with fire. The conflagration she brought about was ultimately to consume the very foundations of her own autocracy.

On March 9, 1917, the people of Russia rose against the czar, and from one end of the country to the other there sounded the terrible cry of an

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outraged populace demanding their freedom. Within three days the czar had abdicated and Russia had become a republic. Almost without premeditation the revolt was brought about. A mob in Petrograd, the capital of Russia, became unruly. Cossack soldiers were ordered to fire upon it, and refused. The Russian Duma, a congress of representatives of the people which the czar had reluctantly permitted to be organized some years before, but which had no real power, took matters into its hands. A provisional government was established, under the leadership of Alexander Kerensky, and the world thought that a miracle had been accomplished, that the people of Russia were about to enter upon a period of real constitutional rule.

But this by no means suited Germany's purpose. The new government, formed not by the Reds but by thinking, conservative men, favored the Allied cause, and proposed to continue the war. As a result, the German agents at once began to foment a new revolution, directed against the provisional government, for the purpose of bringing about a state of anarchy. Documents have since come to light, proving that this new revolution was organized and directed by the German great general staff. Two notorious anarchists, Lenine and Trotzky, were sent into Russia under German pay, and soon succeeded in bringing about the new government's downfall. Ker-

ensky fled, the Reds, who now called themselves "Bolsheviki," rose everywhere against all authority except that of Lenine and Trotzky, and murder, pillage, and arson became the order of the day. In the army all authority vanished. The men refused to obey their officers, even to salute them. Each man asserted that he was as good as his neighbor. Naturally, since the value of any armed force depends first upon discipline, the Russian Army soon became a helpless and disorganized mob. Germany had with a single stroke gotten rid of one of her most dangerous enemies.

At almost the same moment, however, she had gained another and infinitely more dangerous one. It will be remembered that in March, 1916, the torpedoing of the cross-channel steamer *Sussex* had strained the relations between Germany and the United States almost to the breaking-point. Germany, however, had promised to sink no more ships without warning, reserving to herself the right to withdraw her promise later on, should circumstances make it necessary. The circumstances she had in mind, but did not at the time explain, were merely the completion of her new fleet of ocean-going submarines, and the favorable turn of affairs in Russia. Now she was ready to throw off the mask, and defy the world.

Very suddenly, on the thirty-first of January, 1917, the German Government curtly announced that, beginning the following day, she would sink

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on sight any vessel whatever, belligerent or neutral, which might attempt to enter the waters surrounding the British Isles, France, Italy, and the eastern part of the Mediterranean. In other words, Germany ordered the seas closed to commerce. She impudently suggested, however, that one American vessel a week, if painted with certain stripes or markings so as to be readily identified, might, by taking a narrow and prescribed course, be permitted to land at Falmouth, England, on Sundays, and leave on the following Wednesdays. This was the last straw. Not only had Germany repudiated her promises but she had treated the great American nation with contempt. A wave of indignation swept over the country at the mere suggestion that the right of American vessels to sail the high seas was henceforth to depend upon the will of the German Emperor, and only then, as people said, when "painted up like a zebra."

Three days later, on February 3, the United States Government severed diplomatic relations with Germany, whose unscrupulous ambassador at Washington, Count von Bernstorff, was given his passports and ordered back to Berlin. Actual war had not yet come, but the public knew that it would be only a question of time before the United States would be forced to enter the conflict. Later in the month of February President Wilson appeared before Congress and asked for authority to

arm merchant ships against attack by submarines. The United States proposed to defy the orders of the kaiser.

The authority was promptly given, and the Navy Department at once began to mount guns up to six inches in size upon all ocean-going vessels bound for European ports. Two guns were usually mounted, one forward, the other aft, and gun crews were provided by the navy. It was known that the large new German submarines carried 6-inch guns, and guns of this caliber were installed on merchantmen wherever possible, but owing to the limited supply, and also to the fact that not all ships were strongly enough built to carry 6-inch guns upon their decks, many went out carrying lighter weapons.

Frequent accounts of battles between armed merchantmen and submarines have been recorded, but in only a very few cases were the U-boats sunk. They presented a very small target, and when in danger had only to submerge. Nevertheless, merchantmen were much safer when armed. The submarines could carry only a limited number of torpedoes—from twelve to twenty, on the average, and these torpedoes cost many thousands of dollars apiece. Hence the U-boats, remaining away from their bases for weeks, were obliged to use their torpedoes with strict economy. Usually they sank ordinary cargo boats by shell-fire, reserving their torpedoes for big liners. But while it was

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one matter to come to the surface and shell an unarmed vessel, it was quite another to attack an armed one. Hence the number of sinkings among vessels that were armed was comparatively small.

The arming of merchant ships, however, required time, and during the first few months which followed the beginning by Germany of unrestricted submarine warfare, the losses, particularly among English ships, were enormous. Germany claimed that she would sink a million tons of shipping a month. She did not do this. If she had she might have won the war, because the available ocean-going tonnage of the world would at that rate soon have been exhausted, and neither food nor munitions of war could have been sent from America to feed and supply the Allied nations. But she *did* sink during the first three months of 1917 over a million and a half tons, and the Allies began to feel seriously alarmed. Already many of the finest of the Atlantic liners were at the bottom, and many more had been withdrawn from service for use as transports, hospital ships, and the like. Vessels were growing very scarce, and food in England equally so. Germany openly boasted that in six months England would be starving, begging for peace. It was in Great Britain that the danger was most felt, for the British Isles had for a long time depended upon other countries for their supply of food. Virtually all of their wheat, and a large part of their meat, came from

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the United States and the great overseas dominions of Canada and Australia. Now, with plenty of wheat in Australia, there were no vessels to carry it.

As the danger of starvation increased, efforts were made in England to meet it. Great estates, long kept as private parks or game preserves, were plowed up and planted with potatoes or wheat, and since there were few men left at home to do farming work, the women went into the fields in great numbers, as they had already gone into the munition plants. The same thing took place in France, and in both countries the use of food was strictly limited. Many articles could be bought only in small quantities, and then the purchaser was obliged to present a card, allowing its holder so many ounces of bread, potatoes, meat, or butter each week. The same system had been in use in Germany for a long time. With the adoption of the food-card system England began to realize that she faced a serious crisis. The situation of the Allied nations during the early months of 1917 was dangerous in the extreme. It remained for the United States to turn the scale in their favor.

CHAPTER XXI

AMERICA ENTERS THE WAR

THE United States of America was, in April, 1917, the only great nation of the earth that had not been drawn into the world conflict, and its hour of destiny was at hand. Once diplomatic relations had been severed, and merchant ships armed, war was inevitable. On April 6, as a result of certain astounding documents made public, by which Germany was shown to be engaged in a plot to turn both Mexico and Japan against America, Congress declared that between the United States and Germany there existed a state of war.

The immediate causes of this action were unimportant. The great underlying reason was a profound conviction on the part of the people of America that the principles of liberty as laid down in the Declaration of Independence were in danger. The American people saw that if the autocratic principles held by the kaiser and his party were allowed to dominate Europe, it would be only a short time before they would dominate America as well. If Germany did not hesitate to enslave such countries as Belgium, Serbia, Rumania, what reason was there to suppose that she would hesitate to do the same thing to the



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AN AMERICAN TRENCH MORTAR BATTERY AT PRACTICE "SOMEWHERE IN FRANCE"

The men are seen swabbing out the gun



Photo by Underwood & Underwood

A 14-INCH U. S. NAVAL GUN, WITH RAILWAY MOUNT

Range 30 miles. Such guns, manned by naval detachments, did effective work against the German lines during the final weeks of the war

United States? In every man's heart lay a fear that if the United States did not fight for freedom and democracy abroad, she would before long be obliged to fight for them at home. It seemed as though the war for independence fought by Washington and his men would have to be fought over again, if the world were to remain free. The United States entered the war in support of a glorious cause. No nation ever entered a conflict in support of a more glorious one. President Wilson, in some of his many memorable addresses, put the question very clearly when he said:

"The world must be made safe for democracy."

* * *

"We are saying to all mankind we did not set this government up in order that we might have a selfish and separate liberty, for we are now ready to come to your assistance and fight out upon the fields of the world the cause of human liberty. In this thing America attains her full dignity and the full fruition of her great purpose."

* * *

"There is, therefore, but one response possible from us: force, force to the utmost, force without stint or limit, the righteous and triumphant force which shall make right the law of the world and cast every selfish dominion in the dust."

* * *

"To such a task we can dedicate our lives and

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our fortunes, everything that we are, and everything that we have, with the pride of those who know the day has come when America is privileged to spend blood and her might for the principles that gave her birth and happiness and the peace which she has treasured."

* * *

"We have no selfish ends to serve. We desire no conquest, no dominion. We seek no indemnities for ourselves, no material compensation for the sacrifices we shall freely make. We are but one of the champions of the rights of mankind. We shall be satisfied when those rights have been made as secure as the faith and the freedom of nations can make them."

These inspiring words, delivered on various occasions, helped the people of the United States to understand clearly the reasons which made their participation in the great war inevitable. Young Americans of coming generations, reading them, and understanding the reasons which caused the people of the United States to pour out their blood so freely and unselfishly upon the battle-fields of France, will be finer and better men and women because of the knowledge that in the greatest crisis in the world's history the United States did not fail.

The danger which had begun to threaten the Allied cause in the year 1917, did not arise from

the possibility of starvation alone. Another and even graver danger menaced the liberty of the world, and it had its birth in the events which were taking place in Russia.

We saw in the last chapter how the great Russian Empire began to break up. The armies which had so long and valiantly held the front from Riga to the Rumanian border began to melt away. Committees of soldiers and sailors, called "soviets," were formed to manage the affairs of the army and the navy. The German soldiers all along the battle-front were ordered to cross to the Russian trenches, carrying red flags, and to say to the Russian soldiers, "Why should we fight any longer? We have no quarrel with each other." As a result, the Russian troops began to throw down their arms and go home. For them, the war was over. The plotters at Berlin smiled. The Russian pot was boiling entirely to their satisfaction. Soon Germany could safely begin the transfer of her armies from Russia to the battle-front in France.

In the Allied capitals anxious statesmen watched the progress of events with alarm. Italy, fighting furiously along her northern and eastern frontiers, could not be expected to do more than hold the reinforced Austrian Army in check. This left only England, France, and the small remaining army of the Belgians to face the might of Germany, aided by troops from her Austrian, Turkish,

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and Bulgarian allies. It should be remembered that the population of Germany was almost equal to the combined populations of England and France, while that of Austria was far greater than the population of Italy. Also, there were large French and British forces operating in Palestine, Macedonia, and Mesopotamia, against the Bulgarians and Turks. The war-worn soldiers of Great Britain and France on the western front in spite of their colonial troops would be outnumbered, as soon as the German millions arrived from Russia. The situation looked dark indeed. But one thing could save it—the forces of America. Could these forces be organized, trained, equipped, and sent across three thousand miles of submarine-infested seas with apparently not enough ships to carry them? Could big guns, airplanes, rifles, machine guns, shells, ammunition, trucks—all the huge and varied equipment of a modern army—be supplied in time to meet the German menace and save the world's civilization? It seemed an impossible task. The German leaders said it was impossible. The rest of the world feared it would prove so. Inspired articles appeared in the German papers, prepared by the general staff, which said that the United States had no army in the first place; that if she had one it could never get to Europe, and that if it did get to Europe it would not fight. Such was the stupendous task which the United States faced. It will always remain to

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the glory of the nation that it met this task with superb courage, and accomplished it.

The American Army, although splendidly trained and officered, was very small. The nation had one fighting arm, however, that was not only ready but equal to its task. This was the American Navy. Its chief lack was in destroyers, and steps to remedy this deficiency were taken as soon as war was declared. But those that the navy had were already on their way abroad. These swift boats were designed originally for the purpose of attacking the smaller and old-fashioned torpedo boats, but the experience of England and France had shown that they provided the best means of offense against submarines. When, after a stormy trip, this comparatively small squadron of American vessels arrived in English waters, the British admiral to whom they reported inquired how long it would be before they could undertake active service. The commander of the American squadron replied that they were "ready now." This was the spirit of the navy's officers and men. Within a few hours they were once more at sea, combing the surface of the waters, guarding incoming merchantmen, rescuing the survivors of torpedoed ships, ready to send to the bottom by means of their guns or depth bombs the first enemy submarine that might show its nose above the surface. Few in number, the American ships brought to the business of sub-

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marine-hunting a new spirit. It is no reflection upon the splendid officers and men of the British Navy to say that the Americans showed greater keenness and dash. Where an English destroyer would take a day or two to coal and re-fit after a cruise, the American boats were in and out again in a few hours. The Americans also brought into use, later on, improved apparatus for detecting the presence of submarines—delicate listening-devices which enabled those on board a destroyer to hear the beating of the submarine's propellers when she was near at hand.

The United States will not, in a spirit of national pride, claim too much for its naval forces abroad. They did their duty superbly, but they formed only a small part of all the Allied boats fighting the submarine menace. And yet the fact remains that within a week after their arrival in European waters the tremendous losses which the German U-boats had been inflicting upon Allied commerce began to decrease, and continued to decrease, as more destroyers crossed to the other side, until the end of the war.

On June 8, 1917, a small body of United States staff officers, headed by Major-General John Pershing, and accompanied by fifty privates and one hundred aviators, arrived in France. They were the advance guard of an army that grew and grew until it became a mighty host of over two million men. The Germans sneered, and said that two

rooms and a bath had been reserved at one of the Paris hotels for the American Army. They had sneered once before, when they spoke of the English Army as "contemptible," but they had seen that army grow until it numbered over five million men. Now, to their cost, they sneered again. America, however, said nothing, but went quietly ahead with the vast work of preparation.

All through the dark days of 1917, while events in Europe were turning more and more to the advantage of Germany, America worked as she had never worked before. The enrolling of volunteers for the army, the navy, the marine corps began at once, and the regiments of the national guard were called into service. Camps for training officers were established all over the country, and the best blood of the nation crowded to them, to give their services to the government. Huge cantonments for the assembling and training of a great army were hastily built at many points, and Congress, with scarcely a dissenting voice, passed a bill so startling in its nature that a few months before it would have caused something approaching a revolution. This bill called on the young men of the nation, from twenty-one years of age to thirty, to enroll for selective military service. This drafting of the nation's youth resulted in the registration of nearly ten million men, from which to select America's first armies. Germany began to see that the United States was in deadly earnest,

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and redoubled her efforts to destroy Russia and get her men to France.

The record of America's achievements in preparing for war would fill many volumes. No other nation in the world's history had ever undertaken so vast a task or completed it within so short a time. Not only did the huge training-camps, accommodating many thousands of men, spring up everywhere, but immense plants for the manufacture of new and improved types of machine guns, of light and heavy artillery, of gas-masks, rifles, cartridges, powder, uniforms, bombs, army trucks, tanks, airships and countless other articles needed in making war were constructed in record-breaking time. The railroads of the country were taken over by the government for war uses. A tremendous campaign of ship-building was begun, so that, no matter how many ships the German submarines might sink, there would be others leaving the ways to replace them. In a year, from building only a few ships each month, the United States was building more than England, and had become the greatest ship-building nation in the world. Sums of money were appropriated for war purposes, so huge in amount that the few hundreds of millions spent to build the Panama Canal, which a decade before had staggered the nation, now seemed insignificant. A great campaign of food-saving was begun, nation-wide in its scope, whereby wheat, sugar, meat, and fats might be conserved for use

by the Allies. The American people, always wasteful, suddenly began to economize as they had never economized before. Corn, barley, rice, rye were eaten in place of wheat. Fish, eggs, and poultry replaced meats. The use of grain for making spirits was stopped, and later on even the brewing of beer was prohibited. Women took the places of men in factories, shops, public conveyances, on farms. For any one to be idle not only was considered a disgrace but in some of the states became unlawful.

But the people of the nation responded cheerfully and loyally to every sacrifice asked of them, and the great work of winning the war went on in ever-increasing volume. As by the breath of a new spirit the patriotism of the nation became unified. What France, England, and Belgium had endured year after year was suddenly brought home to the people of the United States. *Their* soldiers, *their* people, had held back the common enemy, had stood guard along the trenches of liberty, during the long dark hours of 1914, 1915, and 1916. It was now the turn of the United States. All past differences were forgotten. Men of every walk in life, of every political and religious creed, of every race, gave their best efforts to support the program of the President and the nation. It was a superb exhibition of national unity, and it surprised the world.

But it was not at home alone that the great

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work of preparation went forward. Across the water tasks equally great were being carried out. When it was determined to land millions of men, with their stores and equipment, in France, it was found that facilities were almost totally lacking. Everything would have to be prepared, before the landing of troops in any number could even be begun. There were no adequate harbors, no docks at which men and supplies could be landed, no warehouses to hold the immense stores which would be needed, no railroads to carry these men and stores to the front. All had first to be built, and the men and materials with which to build them had first to be sent across three thousand miles of water, in constant danger of the German submarines. For the very first operation of deepening harbors, dredging-machines had to be sent. When dock-construction was started, piles from America were furnished with which to build them. Cement, steel, tools of every description, rails, locomotives, almost everything, came from across the water.

It was a heart-breaking task, but the energy, enthusiasm, and skill of the American engineers met it successfully. A few figures tell the story. The American Army sent to France nearly 1000 standard-gage locomotives and 13,000 freight cars, and, in addition to operating them, had in service 350 locomotives and 1000 cars of foreign make. Eight hundred and forty miles of standard-gage

railroad were built, enough to reach from New York to Chicago. In addition, 200 miles of French railroads were operated by the Americans, 115 miles of light railways were built, and 140 miles taken from the Germans were repaired and put in operation. Fifty-three thousand motor-vehicles were sent over for the use of the army. In the matter of harbors and docks, 10 steamer berths were built at Bordeaux, having a total length of 4100 feet. At Brest, at St.-Nazaire, at La Pallice, and other points immense docks were constructed, some of them many thousands of feet long. Warehouses lined the railroads for miles about these ports, their floor space reaching a total of almost 23,000,000 square feet. When the war closed the American Army had on hand in France 390,000,000 rations of beans, 183,000,000 rations of flour, 267,000,000 rations of milk, 143,000,000 rations of sugar, 57,000,000 rations of coffee, 113,000,000 rations of rice, and 89,000,000 rations of meat, the latter contained in huge cold-storage warehouses built for the purpose. Hospitals covering many acres, with hundreds of thousands of beds, were ready for the sick and wounded. As for the work undertaken by American engineers in rebuilding bridges, repairing highways, and the like, it would take many pages to make a list of what was done.

It has been said that, had the Germans been able to take the channel ports in 1918, the facilities provided by the American Army on the west coast

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of France would have been ample to take care of the English armies as well. Reports of these activities, reaching neutral countries, caused a profound impression. Germany, it was felt, must win the war quickly or she could not hope to win it at all. The French engineers observed with astonishment and admiration the rapidity with which the great work of preparation went on. Labor-saving devices, new to them, were installed everywhere. Huge derricks and cranes lined the docks, by which the time of unloading the transports, some of them of the largest tonnage, was cut down from many weeks or days to, in some cases, only forty-eight hours. Yet, with all this work under way, the daily food of the men employed upon it was itself supplied from America. No added burdens were placed upon the long-suffering people of France.

The problem of the shortage of ships was in part solved by the rapid handling of them. A vessel quickly unloaded, coaled, and sent back could make three trips where formerly it had made but two. And in part the problem was solved by putting into service all the German and Austrian vessels lying in American ports. The machinery of these vessels had been badly damaged by their crews, under orders from the German Government, and they were supposed to have been rendered useless for many months, if indeed they could be repaired at all. Again the ingenuity of

American engineers triumphed. The damaged engines and boilers were quickly repaired or replaced, and the Germans were obliged to witness the humiliating spectacle of American soldiers crossing to Europe in some of Germany's finest vessels.

Throughout all this period of intense effort and anxiety the people of the United States continued to do their part in helping to feed the suffering millions in Belgium, and also contributed liberally to relief work in Serbia, Poland, Armenia, and other lands devastated by the Germans and their allies. It is a fact worthy of record that even this relief work, which it might have been supposed the Germans would encourage, since it relieved them of serious obligations, was hampered in every possible way. Over and over relief-ships carrying food to Belgium, with the words "Belgian Relief" painted on their sides in letters ten feet high, were torpedoed and sunk. It seemed doubly clear that "Whom the gods would destroy they first make mad." Not only did Germany impede the feeding of the Belgians in this way, but she had for some time been carrying away into Germany, virtually as slaves, large numbers of the population of Belgium and northern France. These unfortunate men and women were dragged from their homes and their families and sent across the Rhine to labor in factories or on farms, under such rigid and cruel discipline that many

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never returned at all, while others came back to their native villages and towns broken in body and spirit. It need scarcely be said that such enslavement of non-combatants is contrary to international law.

CHAPTER XXII

MILITARY OPERATIONS IN 1917

IN our consideration of political events we have for the moment neglected the course of military operations during the year 1917. As a matter of fact, these operations were not of great significance.

The retirement of the German forces to the Hindenburg Line, of which we have spoken, made it impossible for the Allies to begin, without extensive and long-continued preparation, an attack upon that portion of the line affected by the retreat. But the northern end of the line, lying for the most part in Belgium, had not been so affected, and it was here that the British struck.

To the north of Arras the German lines rested upon a stretch of high ground known as Vimy Ridge. Behind it lay a wide expanse of fairly level country, in which were situated the great coal-fields of northern France, centering about the city of Lens. The Germans were working the mines, and the supply of coal thus obtained was of material assistance in enabling them to carry on the war. They had fortified Vimy Ridge until they considered it impregnable, and the costly attacks made upon it in 1915 by the French had all

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been failures. The British determined to take the ridge.

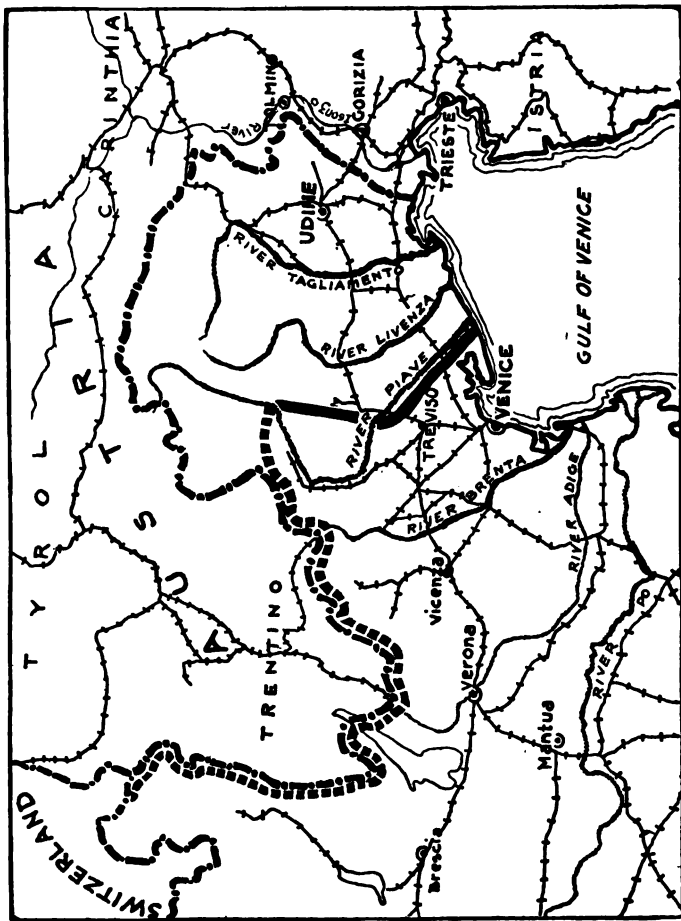
The attack was made in part by Canadian troops and in part by troops from England. It was brilliantly successful. The gallant Canadians, famous along the entire front for their bravery and dash, swept over the summit of the ridge, taking many prisoners and guns, and held their gains against repeated counter-attacks. Early in April the Germans had been forced back to the outskirts of Lens, and it was even reported that the city had fallen, but this was not the case. The many slag-heaps about the place afforded admirable positions for machine guns, and the Canadians paused at the outskirts of Lens in order to save their men.

Another stretch of high ground, known as Messines Ridge, formed a part of the German line opposite Ypres. Throughout the winter British miners had been driving tunnels under the German trenches and putting in position great quantities of high explosives. When all was ready these mines were exploded, and so terrific was their force that the entire top of the ridge was blown off. The German trenches were obliterated and their defenders killed, and the British occupied the ridge.

These attacks formed part of a general plan worked out by Field-Marshal Haig, the British commander-in-chief, to drive the Germans from



AUSTRIANS WHO HAD TAKEN REFUGE IN A CAVE
Surrendering to victorious Italian Troops



THE ITALIAN FRONT

Showing the lines along the River Piave and in the mountains at which the victorious Austrian and German advance was finally stopped

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the coast of Belgium, and thus deprive them of the ports of Zeebrugge and Ostend, used as bases for submarines. In the main the plan failed. The weather conditions were against the British. Incessant rains turned the battle-field into a morass. Tanks were useless. Heavy guns could with difficulty be moved. After many weeks of the most desperate fighting the attempt to capture the Belgian coast was given up. The Germans claimed a victory, and in so far as they had defeated the British purpose, their claim was justified. The attacks further south, however, had greatly improved the British positions. The high ground formerly held by the Germans was now in the hands of their enemies.

The French, in April, also undertook a great attack against the German lines along the Aisne. General Nivelle had been made the commander-in-chief of the armies of France, and he sent his troops forward on a wide front between Soissons and Rheims. By the middle of April the Germans had lost twenty thousand prisoners and a large number of guns. The high ground north of the Aisne along the ridge known as the Chemin des Dames (Road of the Ladies) was taken, and the German losses in killed, wounded, and prisoners reached the great total of two hundred thousand. It seemed as though the French armies were in a good position to break the German lines. But their losses had been heavy, and the Chamber

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of Deputies at Paris became alarmed. They refused to allow General Nivelle to proceed with his attack, on account of the great loss of life, and a little later he was relieved of the chief command, the position being given to General Petain. But the high ground here, as well as in Flanders, was now in Allied hands, and the positions of the Germans were under constant observation and artillery fire.

In November the British struck at the famous Hindenburg Line opposite Cambrai. The attack was made without the usual long-continued artillery preparation, and was thus in the nature of a surprise. A large number of tanks had been assembled, unknown to the Germans, and when they advanced, tearing down the barbed-wire entanglements, and killing the German machine gunners at their posts, the British troops were able to advance almost at will. They went forward until the spires of Cambrai were in sight, and for a short time were completely through the Hindenburg Line. Cavalry was sent forward, and it seemed as though the German lines had been definitely broken. But the British, under General Byng, did not have the necessary reserves to follow up the attack. The success of the tanks had surprised them almost as much as it had surprised the enemy. Had the British been able to send a quarter of a million men through the gap they had created, the Germans would have been driven

out of France, but these men were not at hand. Consequently, when the Germans launched strong counter-attacks a few days later, the British outposts were driven back, and much of the ground gained was recovered by the enemy. It was during these counter-attacks that American troops first fought against the Germans. American engineers, working on the railways behind the British lines, were caught in the German advance, and throwing down their picks and shovels, took up rifles and aided the British in repelling the enemy.

It was to the Italians that the Allies looked for success during the closing months of 1917. The armies of Italy, driving forward along the Bainsizza Plateau toward the northeast, had reached a position only thirty-five miles from the city of Laibach, sometimes called the key to Vienna. They were also within sight of the city of Trieste. The campaign from August until October gave promise of the most brilliant results. Then Germany once more came to Austria's aid, and the whole situation was changed. German agents had been busy, sowing the seeds of revolt throughout the Italian armies as they had previously done along the Russian front. The Italian soldiers were told that the Allies had deserted them. Newspapers, printed in Germany but supposed to come from Rome, were scattered throughout the Italian armies, containing articles to the effect that the Allies had been defeated, that London

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had been captured by the Germans, and that resistance was useless. Suddenly the German and Austrian forces struck a terrific blow against the Italian lines in the vicinity of the town of Caporetto. Traitors behind the Italian lines gave false orders to retreat. Almost before the Italian commander, General Cadorna, realized what had happened, the Germans and Austrians were pouring through the Italian lines and descending into the fertile plains of Venetia.

The whole Italian front was obliged to retreat. The army became demoralized. A quarter of a million troops were made prisoners, and thousands of guns were captured. As the Italian armies retreated in disorder to the southwest, they abandoned position after position at which the world hoped they might make a stand. For a time it seemed as though the whole of northern Italy might be overrun by the invaders, and the way into southern France left open to the Teutonic forces. The situation was very grave, and French and British reinforcements were hurried to the Italian front.

The Italians, however, while badly beaten, were by no means overcome. When they reached the line of the river Piave they made a stand. This river crosses northern Italy, from the mountains, to the Adriatic Sea near the historic city of Venice. There were furious battles along the river,

and also in the mountain passes to the north, but the Austrian drive was stopped. The Italians literally died at their posts. Their losses in men and material were enormous, but Italy was saved. The stand of the Italian armies along the Piave was one of the most remarkable military recoveries in history. Its success is credited largely to General Diaz, who replaced General Cadorna as the Italian commander-in-chief.

The Allied front in Macedonia, north of Saloniki, was still comparatively inactive, but during this long period of inactivity many preparations had been going on. The Serbian forces, retreating ragged and starving through the mountain passes of Albania, were taken by the Italian Navy to the Island of Corfu, and here were strengthened, refreshed, and supplied with the necessary equipment. In this way a new Serbian Army was built up which later in the war was to win great victories.

The situation in Greece had by now become so acute that the Allies decided to take drastic action. With Athens under the guns of Allied war-ships, King Constantine was forced to abdicate in favor of his son Alexander, and with his German wife he fled from the country and took refuge in Switzerland. As a ruler he had done little or nothing to advance the cause of the Greek people, and when upon his retirement Premier Venizelos took

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the reins of government in his hands, matters soon began to assume an aspect favorable to the Allied cause.

On the eastern front the Russians, in July, attempted an advance in southeastern Galicia, and achieved a momentary success by capturing the cities of Halicz and Kalusz, with prisoners and booty. The disorganization which was spreading so rapidly through the Russian armies, however, rendered the advance but a flash in the pan. Within a few weeks German and Austrian forces began a series of strong counter-attacks which soon drove the Russians back to their frontiers. As a fighting-unit the Russian Army no longer existed.

In Palestine the British and French expedition from the Suez Canal and up the Sinai Peninsula was making steady progress. Advancing under the greatest difficulties through the desert country east of the canal, the forces under General Allenby, assisted by the Arab tribes which had revolted against the rule of the sultan, swept up the coast and captured Gaza, known in Biblical history as the city from which Samson carried away the gates. This success was quickly followed by the capture of Jerusalem. The fall of this historic city was of unusual significance. Not since the days of the Crusaders had Jerusalem been in Christian hands. With the utmost reverence General Allenby entered the city on foot, and took possession of the place in the name of the Allies.

The site of the Holy Sepulcher thus finally passed from the control of the sultan.

At once the effects of Turkish misrule began to disappear. Jews, Syrians, Arabs, and the other elements which made up the population of the city, safe beneath the flags of Great Britain and the Allies, went about their affairs in peace, with sure knowledge that justice would be maintained. North of Jerusalem the Turkish armies, under the command of their German leader, Field-Marshal Liman von Sanders, entrenched themselves in strong positions in the hills, barring the Allied advance toward Damascus.

In Mesopotamia the British-Indian advance up the river Tigris was making excellent progress. General Aylmer, who had failed in his attempts to relieve General Townshend at Kut-el-Amara, was succeeded by General Maude, who pushed his way northward until he reached the outskirts of Bagdad. After a spirited engagement the city fell, and the British continued their advance northward in the direction of Mosul. At Bagdad, however, General Maude was suddenly taken ill, and died within a few days. He is supposed to have been a victim of cholera, although there were rumors that he had been poisoned. The advance northward continued under the command of General Marshall.

General Marshall's right flank, which it had been hoped might be linked up with the Russians

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operating in northern Persia, was suddenly exposed by the collapse of the Russian armies. The campaign in the Caucasus, which had begun so brilliantly, went to pieces, and soon the Turks had recaptured Erzerum and were pressing eastward on the heels of the retreating enemy. Detachments working toward the southeast into northern Persia were thus on General Marshall's right flank, and he was obliged to proceed with the greatest caution.

Between the forces of General Marshall in Mesopotamia and those of General Allenby in Palestine lay the great Arabian desert. The British plan of campaign was as follows: General Marshall's forces were to work northwestwardly, around the eastern fringe of the Arabian desert, through Mosul, while General Allenby's armies were to advance northeastwardly, around its western edge, through Damascus. These two lines of march would thus converge and meet at the city of Aleppo, on the Berlin-to-Bagdad railroad, south of Constantinople. Joining here, they would threaten that city with attack from the south. It was an ambitious plan; the distances to be traversed were great—many hundreds of miles—but steady progress was made, and success would result in putting Turkey out of the war. Events in Europe, however, were far too serious for the Allied commanders to attach great importance to these operations in Asia Minor.

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Defeat on the western front, in France, would quickly render them of little or no value, and conditions in Russia were such as to cause many to feel that such a defeat was by no means out of the question.

During the year 1917 the development of the airplane had progressed with giant strides. The Zeppelin, of which so much had been expected, had proved to be a costly failure. The perfecting of the anti-aircraft gun soon rendered it dangerous for these vessels, presenting as they did such large targets, to expose themselves over fortified places, and when a fleet of them was in large part destroyed in a raid over London, the Germans discontinued their construction and devoted themselves to the development of the airplane.

When the war broke out England possessed about a hundred of these heavier-than-air craft, but it was not long before the number grew into the thousands, and she was rivaling Germany in the size of her air fleet. France and Italy, too, developed machines of great speed and power, and the aerial navies of the several countries at war soon took on formidable proportions. At first the practice was to develop individual flyers of great bravery and skill, whose scores in enemy planes shot down mounted until in some cases they approached the hundred mark; but these men, set upon by groups of enemy machines, were in time killed and it became apparent that better results could be

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obtained by operating airplanes in squadrons, and hence the individual flyer became subordinated to the work of the aerial fleet.

Three classes of planes came into general use. One was the small and very swift combat plane, used to protect groups of heavier machines employed in bombing-operations, or in observation work. A second was the bombing-plane, of great size and carrying at times several men, together with thousands of pounds of bombs to be dropped on enemy fortifications, munition plants, railroad yards, junctions, and the like. A third class consisted of planes used for observation work, and especially for photographing the enemy's lines. The English perfected a system of making double photographs, which, when placed in a stereoscope, showed the object pictured in relief, so that the height of trench parapets, gun emplacements, and the like could be determined with a considerable degree of accuracy. As the war drew to a close, many instances occurred of airplanes being used for direct attack upon bodies of men, transport trains, and batteries on the ground, the swift-moving aircraft descending to low levels and skimming along over trenches or roads, too low to be attacked by anti-aircraft guns, and moving too rapidly to be readily hit by the fire of infantrymen or machine guns.

In spite of the lessons of the war abroad, the United States made little or no effort to equip its

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army with aircraft prior to entering the war. After hostilities began a huge program was begun, but many and needless delays occurred, and when the war came to a close American aircraft production was just getting under way. Had the conflict been prolonged, the United States forces would have had at their command more airships than were possessed by all the Allied armies combined.

CHAPTER XXIII

EFFECTS OF THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

RUSSIA, during the year 1917, progressed rapidly toward complete anarchy. Having no central government worthy of the name, the country began to break up into a number of separate states. The Cossacks of the Don region declared their independence. Siberia refused to submit to the misrule of the Bolsheviki at Petrograd, controlled by Lenine and Trotzky. The great wheat-growing country of the Ukraine, bordering on the Black Sea, set up a separate government. Livonia, Esthonia, Russian Poland, Finland, all declared themselves free from Russian control. The government at Petrograd, if government it could be called, had succeeded in disorganizing the army and disrupting the empire. Germany, anxious to remove her armies to the western front, proposed peace.

Delegates from both countries met at the Russian fortress of Brest Litovsk, now in German hands, in March, 1918. The government at Petrograd was represented by Trotzky. The new Ukrainian republic also sent delegates. The Germans proposed terms of peace which left them

absolute masters of Russia, and these terms were accepted. Betrayed by the paid agents of the Bolsheviki, Russia was virtually placed in German hands. A pretense of self-government was allowed, but German forces of occupation were to see that the stores of grain and other food-stuffs were to be devoted to the feeding of the German people. The few clauses in the treaty which favored the Russians, Germany at once repudiated. To her this agreement was merely another "scrap of paper." Under the pretense of maintaining order, German armies advanced into Russia, German military governors supplanted the local authorities, and the peasants were ordered to turn over to their German masters all stores of food-stuffs in their possession. It was expected that this food, shipped back to Germany, would relieve the dangerous food shortage in that country.

By her own criminal methods, however, Germany defeated herself, as she had defeated herself from the first. The peasants of the Ukraine, of other parts of Russia, refused to give up their stores of food, even under torture, and soon were in open revolt. The whole country was given over to pillage, and guerilla warfare went on between the German forces of occupation and the Russian peasants. The amount of food collected was disappointingly small, and what little finally reached Germany and Austria had no appreciable affect upon the situation. The rule of anarchy

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set up by the Bolsheviki satisfied no one. Every man who owned property of any sort, or land, was looked upon as an oppressor of the people, and was promptly robbed, or murdered. Organized industry ceased. The Bolsheviki claimed that the factories belonged to the people, but their efforts to operate them were failures. The Russian peasants, in their mad dream of freedom, failed to understand that all effort must have an intelligent head to direct it. With every man's hand turned against his neighbor, there was no order, no co-operation, and hence no progress toward real freedom. The Russian Czar, who had been sent by the revolutionists into eastern Russia, was accused of dealing with the enemy, and shot. His death, in July, 1917, had no effect on the situation. Russia was drifting rapidly into a state of anarchy, and it seemed clear that only a strong military force could bring about a stable government.

In Rumania much the same state of affairs existed. The German forces of occupation, under Field-Marshal von Mackensen, compelled the king and government of Rumania to conclude a treaty of peace which left that country virtually a vassal of Germany. On May 6 this treaty was signed, and Rumania ceased for the time being to be an independent nation. Here, as in Russia, the plan of robbing the peasants of their scanty stores of food was put into operation, but the results were disappointing. What small stocks of food the

people had they concealed, and very little found its way into Germany.

The Russian Army, as an organized force, no longer existed. The advance toward Lemberg in July, under General Brusiloff, to which we have already referred, amounted to nothing. The doctrines of the Bolsheviki had undermined the morale of the army. The Russian soldiers no longer wished to fight.

In the north the Germans attained a military success of considerable importance. Forces operating along the Dvina River captured Dvinsk, and advanced upon Riga from the south. The city quickly fell, and the road to Petrograd was open. The German fleet at the same time steamed into the Gulf of Riga and landed troops upon the islands lying in the gulf. These naval operations had no great significance, the most notable feature of them being the escape of the Russian fleet from the Gulf of Riga to the safety of the guns of Kronstadt, the great fortress at the head of the Baltic Sea, off Petrograd.

Throughout the autumn and winter of 1917 the German troops in Russia flowed steadily westward. In the regiments which remained, older men, or those whose physical condition prevented them from undertaking the rigorous duties of active front-line work, were left in place of those who were more efficient. The greater part of the German heavy artillery was sent to France, in prep-

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aration for the greatest offensive that the world had ever seen. The German leaders knew that they must win a victory in 1918 or they could not hope to win at all, and they bent every effort toward that end.



Photo by Press Illustrating Service, Inc.

MARSHAL FERDINAND FOCH
Commander-in-Chief of the Allied Forces



(Opposite to Page 100)

GENERAL JOHN JOSEPH PERSHING

Commanding General of the American Expeditionary Force

CHAPTER XXIV

AMERICAN FORCES ABROAD DURING 1917

WE have already spoken of the excellent work done by the American Navy in foreign waters. The number of merchant vessels sunk by the submarines of Germany was very large, but it had fallen far short of the total which the kaiser's government had expected. During 1917 four million five hundred thousand tons were sunk, but the shipyards of America and the Allied countries were humming with activity, and there seemed every prospect that these losses, great as they were, would be made up.

Over three hundred American war-ships of all sorts were sent abroad, manned by seventy-five thousand men. The great battle-ships joined the British fleet, thus still further increasing the odds against Germany, while destroyers and cruisers were employed to guard the transports which carried troops to France. As a result, only three American troop-ships were sunk by enemy submarines, and these were on their way home from France, so that the losses in men were very small. Many stations were built on the French coast from which American seaplanes operated, patrolling the waters off shore and guarding the incoming

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transports from submarine attack. Admiral Sims, in command of the naval forces abroad, and Admiral Rodman, in charge of the United States battle-ship fleet, won the admiration of the Allied commanders by their efficient coöperation. It was due largely to these officers that the construction of a mine barrier across the North Sea between Scotland and Norway was begun. The German sea-going submarines were obliged to take this route in passing from their home ports to the ocean, and it was decided to stop them by placing in their path a barrier of explosive mines. Special mines were designed for this purpose, and the construction of one hundred thousand was begun. When the war ended, eighty-five thousand of these mines had already been made and sent abroad, and within a short time it would have been impossible for German U-boats to have left the North Sea by this route.

The Marine Corps of the navy did splendid work ashore in France. The exploits of these fighting men will be mentioned later. In every respect the United States Navy proved ready and efficient, and its record during the war was one of which every American should feel proud.

The work of the army began with the arrival in France of General Pershing and his staff. They were quickly followed by a regiment of engineers, which reached port late in June. By the end of October there were many United States troops in

France, and on the twenty-sixth of that month they first entered the trenches and began their training in actual warfare.

It was well known to military men, both in the United States and abroad, that long-continued training was necessary, in order that troops might become familiar with the intricate details of trench warfare. The use of bombs, trench mortars, and the like, the construction of dugouts and shelters, the conducting of night raids, defense against gas-attacks, patrol work, all the details of this highly specialized form of warfare, were new to the American soldier, and could be learned only by actual experience. No matter how well drilled troops might be, this experience was necessary if trench warfare was to keep up, and one of the problems which confronted General Pershing and his staff was that of securing this experience for the American soldiers in the shortest possible time, in order that they might take their places in the line beside the veterans of England, France, and the other Allied countries.

The first shot fired by American troops against the Germans was sent across the lines on October 27, from a French 75-millimeter gun manned by United States artillerymen. Field-guns of this type were being manufactured in American plants, but special machinery for their construction had first to be built, and progress in turning them out was necessarily very slow. For this reason the

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United States forces abroad were obliged for a long time to depend upon guns of French make, and even when the war came to an end, the proportion of American-made artillery in France was very small.

During the autumn and winter of 1917 minor trench operations were conducted by General Pershing's men along that section of the front lying south of Verdun, and known as the Toul sector, because it was based on the French city of Toul. Gradually this entire sector was taken over by American troops, who began to learn the secrets of trench warfare from actual experience. The process, however, was exceedingly slow. It was well known that in open fighting the American soldier was the equal of any fighting-man in the world, but in trench work he was at a great disadvantage. It remained for Germany in the final year of the war to commit another of her fatal blunders. Instead of holding her fortified lines in Belgium and France and defying the Allies to drive her from them, she deliberately advanced and gave battle in the open, thus at once bringing into the conflict hundreds of thousands of American soldiers who had had no experience in trench warfare whatever, and in such warfare would have been of little immediate use against her.

As the troops from America landed, they were sent at once to training-camps far behind the battle-front, and here their instruction began, under

the direction of French and English veterans. While these fighting-units were in training, other detachments were engaged in the construction work made necessary by the coming armies. Lumbermen from the South and the West found themselves operating sawmills in the French forests in the Vosges Mountains, and elsewhere. Engineers prominent in the civil life of America were to be seen building roads, bridges, railways, camps, docks, and storage depots of every sort. Famous doctors and surgeons gave their skill in providing for the sanitary welfare of the coming armies. Organizations such as the Red Cross, the Young Men's Christian Association, the Knights of Columbus, the Salvation Army sent their representatives abroad to provide for the comfort and well-being of the troops. Many thousands of skilled mechanics, disdaining the high wages which were being paid to such men at home, gave their services to the government at a soldier's pay in order to go abroad and do their part in the great work of construction behind the lines. Among both these men and the combat units were to be found many negroes, who proved their bravery and devotion to the country not alone in work behind the lines but equally so at the front, where their courage in attack, especially with the bayonet, attracted wide-spread attention.

The organization of the United States Army abroad differed somewhat from that of the armies

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of the Allies. In order to understand fully the operations in which the Americans took part during the year 1918, the details of this organization should be grasped.

The American "division" as it is called, was much larger than the divisions of the European armies, and comprised in all some 28,000 men. Of these men, there were four regiments, consisting of three battalions each, or twelve in all, in the first line. Each battalion consisted of four companies of 250 men each, or 1000 men to the battalion. The first line infantrymen numbered therefore 12,000 men. There were also a regiment of engineers, a machine-gun battalion, a brigade of artillery consisting of three regiments, and a signal-corps battalion, a trench-mortar battery, and the necessary transport, medical, and police units. Taking the division as a unit, six were required to make up an army corps, namely, four combat divisions, one depot division, one replacement division, and two regiments of cavalry. Three to five of these army corps constituted an army. It will thus be seen that an army corps embraced 168,000 men, and an army, from 500,000 to 840,000 men. Two American armies were in operation when the war came to a close, and a third was in process of formation.

No victories on the field of battle were won by the American Expeditionary Forces abroad during the year 1917, but in war the greatest victories

are not always won on the field of battle. The thousands of young Americans who landed in France daily were creating a menace to the power of the kaiser which neither he nor his generals could afford to ignore. Their sneers were for the consumption of the people at home; they themselves knew that when the American forces reached their maximum strength German imperialism was doomed, and hence they made frantic efforts to gain a decision before that strength was reached.

CHAPTER XXV

THE BEGINNING OF THE YEAR 1918

THE year 1918 began very quietly, from a military standpoint, yet it was merely the quiet before the storm. Preparations for the great German offensive went on with feverish activity. The German leaders hoped to obtain a military decision of some sort during the year, upon which a negotiated peace might be based. Yet there was growing throughout the world a feeling of opposition to the German plans which rendered victory for the kaiser impossible. The British, French, Italians, and Americans, while Germany's principal opponents, were by no means her only ones. Portuguese troops held a sector of the front in France. Brazil and Cuba had entered the lists and were preparing expeditions. China, at war with Germany, proposed to send troops to the front, while hundreds of thousands of Chinese laborers were at work behind the lines in France. Polish regiments, recruited on both sides of the water, went to the front under their own flag. From every part of the world men came to assist in bringing about the defeat of Germany. It was recognized everywhere that, no matter what

the cost, the forces of the kaiser would have to be beaten.

In addition to their constant air attacks upon the submarine bases at Zeebrugge and Ostend, the British Navy made a gallant and successful attempt to render these ports useless for the German under-water boats. An expedition was prepared with the greatest secrecy, having as its object the blocking of these ports by sinking vessels across their channels. At night, under cover of smoke screens, the antiquated war-ship *Vindictive* was sent into the harbor of Zeebrugge, accompanied by other craft, including a submarine loaded with high explosives. The submarine was driven against the Mole, an artificial breakwater which forms the Zeebrugge harbor, and exploded, while at the same time the *Vindictive*, together with the *Thetis*, the *Intrepid* and the *Iphigenia*, loaded with concrete, were sunk in the entrance of the canal leading to Bruges. The loss of life on the *Vindictive* and the destroyers which accompanied her, exposed as they were to the concentrated fire of the German shore batteries, was very heavy. The *Vindictive* was hit one thousand times, but the British sailors and marines did not flinch, and the operation was successfully carried out. The results at Ostend were not so satisfactory, but at both places the channels were seriously obstructed, and although the Germans tried their best to clear them, the daily bombing-operations

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carried on by Allied air forces prevented them from doing so. This success seriously impaired the efficiency of the German submarine campaign.

The Germans, in some spirit of desperation, attempted a submarine attack along the American coast. U-boats, equipped for a long stay at sea, crossed the Atlantic and began operations against American coastwise shipping. They did not attempt to attack the United States transport service, efficiently guarded by American cruisers and destroyers, but confined their efforts to sinking barges, fishing-boats, and sailing vessels along the New England coast. Their depredations amounted to nothing, from a military standpoint, and the American public laughed at them.

The constant bombing of London and Paris from the air caused the Allies to retaliate. Great bombing-planes were sent over the German cities along the Rhine, and many munition factories, chemical works, and the like were destroyed. Germany began to get a taste of the horrors she had been inflicting upon the cities of England and France, and, as has been pointed out in a previous chapter, she promptly begged that such bombing-operations should cease.

It is of interest to note that while autocracy in Germany and the nations allied with her was steadily becoming weaker, in the great democratic nations opposed to her it was becoming stronger. This apparent paradox requires explanation.

Some one has said that the most perfect form of government in the world would be a "benevolent autocracy." This may be true, but autocracies are rarely benevolent, and thus the nations living under democratic rule have placed about their rulers many safeguards by which their powers would be regulated and curbed should any tendency appear toward the gathering of too much authority in the hands of any one man. In times of war, however, these constitutional regulations and safeguards must of necessity be set aside, and the men in authority be given power which they would not need in times of peace, and which in such times would be promptly taken away from them. Thus we find in England the chief authority centered during this war in the prime minister, Lloyd George; in France, in Clemenceau, called because of his savage energy "The Tiger"; in Italy, in Premier Orlando; and in the United States, in President Wilson. These men, possessing the confidence of the people of their respective nations, wielded for the time being almost, if not quite, as much power as the kaiser himself. In fact, as we have already said, the people of Germany and Austria were beginning to show signs of restlessness under their autocratic form of government. Reforms were demanded by them which would limit the power of their rulers as such power was limited in more democratic countries. This movement on the part of the people of the Central

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Powers, as Germany and her allies were called, ultimately exercised a profound effect in bringing the war to an end.

In March, 1918, the final test of military strength began. The conflict which followed constitutes the military history of the year 1918.

CHAPTER XXVI

THE GREAT BATTLE OF 1918

The German Offensive

WE use the expression "The Great Battle of 1918," because throughout that entire year, from March, when the weather makes fighting possible, until November, when it usually comes to a halt on account of cold and rain, a huge battle was in progress. No such battle as this had ever been fought before, and it is devoutly to be hoped that no such battle will ever be fought again. The conflict involved, on the two sides, and on the various fronts, forces amounting to over twenty-five million men, and although the battle was fought over many areas widely removed from one another, it was really but one vast and final conflict between the forces of autocracy on the one hand, directed by General von Ludendorff, and the forces of democracy on the other, directed by Marshal Ferdinand Foch. It was in truth a battle of giants.

In a general way the Battle of 1918 may be divided into six great phases, as follows:

- (1) The German Offensive
- (2) The Allied Counter-Offensive

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(3) The Austrian Drive against Italy and the Italian Counter-Offensive.

(4) The Allied Drive against Bulgaria.

(5) The Campaign in Palestine.

(6) The Campaign in Mesopotamia.

We will deal with these various phases of the battle as they occurred.

First let us note the position of the American troops on the western front. It had been found that the training afforded by placing the men on quiet sectors of the line was far too slow. It was necessary that these troops should more quickly gain experience in actual fighting. As a result many American regiments were brigaded with the English and the French, that is, were placed under the command of generals of these nations, and sent to the front as units of their divisions or army corps. Soon we find American soldiers operating at many points along the long line from the North Sea to Switzerland, notably in the Champagne country, upon the battle-front in Picardy, in Flanders, and elsewhere. By the end of April, 1918, half a million American troops had been landed in France, in spite of the desperate efforts made by the German submarines to stop them, and the menace of their presence was felt all along the front.

We have spoken in a previous chapter of the so-called peace made by the Germans with Russia and the Ukraine at Brest Litovsk. It is probable

that the Germans knew this peace could not be permanent, but it did suffice to enable them to move their troops to the western front, and begin the tremendous and final effort toward victory by which they hoped to end the war. The great general staff knew very well that if they did not win in 1918, they could not win at all, since the increasing number of American troops would ultimately counterbalance the superiority in numbers which the bringing of men from Russia temporarily gave them. It seemed to be clearly a case of "now or never."

It is said that there was some disagreement on the part of the great general staff as to the advisability of making this huge and desperate attack. Von Hindenburg, the nominal chief of staff, is reported to have opposed it, contending that it would be wiser for Germany to hold fast to what she had in Belgium and France by defending her powerful Hindenburg Line, and defying the Allies to drive her from it. But von Hindenburg's power had begun to wane. His younger and more audacious assistant, General von Ludendorff, who held the position of quartermaster-general, urged the attack by every means in his power and promised the kaiser and the German people that he would win a great victory. His plan was to break through the British and French lines where they joined along the river Somme, and sweep down the Somme Valley to the sea. A glance at the map will show the

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results to be expected from such a manœuver. By taking the city of Amiens, and reaching the mouth of the Somme, Ludendorff hoped to cut the British and French forces in two. The armies of Great Britain would be crowded to the northwest against the channel ports, while those of France would be driven back upon Paris. It would then be an easy matter to attack and defeat each in detail. The plan, Napoleonic in its strategy, aroused great enthusiasm in Germany when it later on became known. Von Ludendorff was the idol of the people, the man of the hour. Filled with hope of victory, the kaiser gave the word to go ahead.

General von Ludendorff's plans had been carefully made. A new system of attack had been worked out, known as the "von Hutier" system, because it was first employed by the general of that name against the Russians in the drive on Riga. From every regiment throughout the army the strongest and most active men were selected and formed into special units known as shock battalions. These shock troops were to lead the attack, leaving the poorer men to bring up the rear, as well as to guard those sections of the front which were relatively quiet. A tremendous use of gas was planned, not of the older kinds which had been released along the trenches to be blown by the wind into the opposing lines, but of newer and deadlier gases, enclosed in liquid form in shells, to be hurled from guns of large caliber into areas far



British Official Photograph

JERUSALEM

The conqueror of Palestine, General Allenby, entering the captured city on foot

behind the enemy's front. One of the worst of these new gases was known as mustard gas, because of its odor. It had the power to cause terrible burns, and penetrated the thickest clothing. Areas drenched with it remained uninhabitable for many hours, and its slightest touch would send a man to the hospital for weeks. Special light field-artillery was built, to be drawn by men, instead of the horses ordinarily used, and these light pieces were to be employed to demolish the enemy's trenches, fortifications, and tanks. Thousands of trench mortars were employed to prepare the attack. The men detailed for special service, such as bomb-throwing, or the use of liquid fire, were carefully drilled in their particular duties; in fact, the whole attack was rehearsed in secret behind the lines as carefully as a theatrical manager might rehearse a play. Every man knew exactly what he had to do.

Naturally the Allied commanders realized that the attack was impending, and made preparations to resist it. But their greatest difficulty lay in the fact that they could not know at what point along the many hundreds of miles of battle-front the attack would take place. The "initiative," as it is called, lay with the Germans, and this gave them one advantage which is always possessed by the attacking forces, namely, that of surprise. They might elect to drive toward Verdun, or through the Champagne country about Rheims, or

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along the Somme, or to the coast in the direction of Calais. Not knowing what the Germans meant to do, the Allies were unable to concentrate their reserves at any one point, since all points had to be protected. This was the first disadvantage under which the Allies labored. The second, which had impeded their efforts all through the war, arose from the fact that they had no unity of command. Their different armies were all under different leaders. There were the Belgians under King Albert, the British under Field-Marshal Haig, the French under General Petain, the Italians under General Diaz, the Americans under General Pershing. These different commanders consulted one another, of course, but each had his own ideas, his own plans. There was no concerted action, none of that singleness of purpose which had rendered the Teutonic armies so formidable from the first. General von Ludendorff commanded from the North Sea to the Persian Gulf, from Riga to Palestine, and this gave him a tremendous advantage.

Germany, her vast preparations completed, began the attack on the morning of the twenty-first of March. The front chosen stretched for nearly fifty miles north and south of the river Somme, from near Arras southward to the river Oise. The German efforts were immediately and enormously successful. Heavy mists, throughout the early morning, aided in the surprise. The British first

positions were taken almost before their defenders knew that an attack had been launched. The German shock troops, accompanied by their detachments of light artillery and machine guns, liquid-fire projectors and bomb-throwers carried out their carefully rehearsed plans as though they had been on parade, and tore through the British lines almost at will. Meanwhile a concentrated bombardment had drenched the territory behind the Allied positions with great quantities of gas, rendering the bringing up of reinforcements and supplies very difficult. The British and French were of course greatly outnumbered, in some cases fighting four and five to one. This resulted from the fact that the Germans had concentrated, on the front chosen for the attack, a huge body of reserves, which they threw into the battle with reckless fury. The location of the attack had been carefully hidden. Even the German troops themselves did not know their leaders' plans. Hundreds of thousands of men had been concentrated at central points far behind the lines, concealed during the day from Allied airmen, in forests and ravines. During the night before the attack they began to move, marching many miles in the darkness, and arriving upon the scene of battle in the morning, when they were at once thrown into the fight.

The British Fifth Army under General Gough, which held the southern end of the English lines,

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where they linked up with the French, was not defeated—it was overwhelmed, suffering huge losses in men and guns. The Allied troops along the entire line of the attack fought with the most desperate bravery, holding their positions against greatly superior numbers until they were shot down or surrounded and forced to surrender. Their artillery and machine guns, playing on the dense masses of the advancing enemy, caused tremendous slaughter in his ranks. Line after line was swept away, but still the Germans came on, filled with the promise of a great and final victory. Under their iron discipline they marched in close formation over the British trenches, closing up their ranks as hundreds fell, yet never ceasing to advance, often over piles of their own dead. In many cases the British and French machine guns became red-hot from continuous firing, and had to be abandoned. In others the supplies of ammunition were exhausted and the confusion behind the lines caused by the incessant gas-bombardment prevented their being renewed.

Fighting doggedly, the British and French fell back, holding point after point with the utmost courage, while waiting for their reserves to come up. The fighting was no longer conducted from permanent trenches, these having long ago been passed in the Allied retreat. Open warfare of the old order was now in progress, the men taking cover in ruined houses, behind walls, or in such

shallow shelters as they could dig in the earth in the few hours given them to intrench. Without sleep or food for days, the retreating troops fought until they dropped from exhaustion, but still the great German advance went on.

As has been pointed out, the Allies' reserves were held at certain points behind the lines, ready to be sent wherever they were most needed. But the bringing up of large bodies of men, with their equipment, requires much time. The British reserves in France were small. Many men had been withdrawn to work in the shipyards, on account of the great losses caused by the German submarines. There was also a reorganization of the British armies going on, having to do with the reduction of the number of men in each division. To some extent the British were caught unprepared, and it was to the French that they were obliged to look for reinforcements with which to check the retreat of General Gough's demoralized army. French troops, hurried up from the south, were thrown into the battle on both sides of the Somme.

But the German advance had gained tremendous momentum. Like an avalanche it rolled on, sweeping everything before it. The people of the Allied nations held their breath as day by day, during that first black and terrible week, the Germans drove on mile after mile until it seemed that nothing could stop them. Pessimists began to say that

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the end had come, that Germany was on the eve of winning the war. To add to the spirit of demoralization which sprang up, the Germans had begun to bombard the city of Paris with a long-range gun, capable of throwing a shell over seventy miles. The gun was a huge 15-inch naval piece, taken from one of the German super-dreadnoughts lying idle in the Kiel Canal. By mounting it to fire at a high angle, and using what is called a sub-caliber projectile, that is, a shell smaller than the bore of the gun, but so constructed as to receive the explosive force of the powder charge intended for a shell much larger and heavier, the Germans were able to surprise the world by shelling Paris from a distance of seventy-two miles. The shells, dropping at regular intervals in the streets of the French capital, killed and injured many persons, but if the Germans expected the French to be terrified, they were mistaken. Paris, grave and determined, read the bad news from the Picardy front and went on its way undismayed. Frightfulness had once more failed.

Day after day the British and French lines along the Somme bent back—ten, twenty, thirty, forty miles—like a huge bow, but they did not break. At one point the Germans came so near to breaking through that they were held back only by a hastily assembled force of engineers, stretcher-bearers, camp servants and other non-combatants. These men, seizing rifles, bringing up machine

guns, stopped the dangerous gap in the British lines until reinforcements could arrive. Many Americans, some of them engineers, fought here, under the command of General Carey, of the British Army, and for several days only this improvised force prevented the Germans from sweeping through to Amiens and separating the French and British armies.

No troops, however well trained and equipped, can continue an advance such as the Germans were making, without becoming exhausted, and also without getting ahead of their transport and their heavy guns. When they had gone forward close to fifty miles, the armies of General von Ludendorff began to slow up, waiting for food, ammunition, artillery. At the same time, as more reserves reached the British and French, the resistance became stronger. But the Germans were within sight of Amiens, their immediate objective, and shells from their heavier guns had already begun to fall in the town, and upon the cathedral. The situation was desperate. Then something took place which changed the aspect of things over-night. This was the appointment of General Ferdinand Foch, whose name we have heard before, to the position of supreme commander or generalissimo of all the Allied forces. An eventful meeting took place, when the situation looked blackest, between General Foch, General Petain, the French commander-in-chief, and Field-Mar-

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shal Sir Douglas Haig, commanding the British. They sat about a small table in a village behind the lines, and General Foch traced upon the table-top his plan to save Amiens and stop the German advance. General Foch did not displace General Petain, the heroic defender of Verdun, as commander-in-chief of the French; nor in fact, did he displace any of the other Allied generals. He was placed in supreme command over them all.

General Petain, Field-Marshal Haig, General Diaz, the Italian commander, and General Pershing all welcomed the opportunity to concentrate the supreme command, in this dark hour, in the hands of the brilliant French strategist. On the fourteenth of April Foch assumed charge of the situation with the simple announcement that Amiens would not fall. Nor did it. The Germans were stopped at Montdidier, a few miles east of the city, and there they were held, unable to advance another mile. The great German drive had gained much territory, and inflicted heavy losses upon the Allies in killed, wounded, prisoners, and guns; but their own losses had been huge, and they had failed to accomplish what they set out to accomplish, namely, to break the Allied lines and drive a wedge between the British and the French. Exhausted by their own efforts, the Germans in Picardy paused to re-form their forces for a new attack. General von Ludendorff's strategy possessed one fatal defect. Human ma-

terial could not endure the strain necessary to keep the mighty effort going. Like some ponderous engine deprived of its steam the German attack was forced finally to come to rest of its own weight.

Before this, General Pershing, putting aside for the moment his own plans for attack in the sector south of Verdun, about Toul, placed the entire forces under his command at the disposal of Marshal Foch, to be used as the latter might see fit. Troops were sent from Toul to increase the French reserves about Montdidier, and early in May, 1918, it was arranged that the British were to transport from America ten divisions, to be used along the northern part of the line, from the North Sea south to Arras.

These troops, it will be remembered, had had no actual experience in trench warfare, but they were ready to attack whenever the opportunity offered, and their superiority over the German troops was soon made apparent. The day the German drive began, March 21, 1918, Premier Lloyd George of England, realizing that the Allies were outnumbered, called upon President Wilson for one hundred and twenty thousand American troops monthly. The President replied that if England would supply the ships, the United States would furnish the troops. England *did* supply the ships, and the number of men asked for each month from the United States was not only sent

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but doubled. Premier Lloyd George has since declared that when the appeal of March 21 was made the situation of the Allies was desperate.

The German belief that the American troops would not fight was a gigantic blunder. As early as May 28 the results of it were apparent. On that date an American division on the Picardy front near Montdidier undertook and carried out an attack against the town of Cantigny, capturing all their objectives with a speed and dash that at once demonstrated to both the Allied commanders and the enemy that in fighting of this sort the troops from the United States had no superiors.

Meanwhile the Germans, foiled in their attempts along the valley of the Somme, began new and more desperate thrusts further to the north, in the hope of finding a weak spot in the Allied lines. Violent but unsuccessful attacks were made against the British opposite Arras, after which the large reserves of Crown-Prince Rupprecht of Bavaria, who commanded the German forces in Flanders, were hurled forward along the valley of the river Lys, south of Ypres. In huge numbers the Germans swept over Messines Ridge, so brilliantly taken by the Canadian forces during the previous year, and reached and took Kemmel Hill, in spite of the desperate defense offered by the British, and the French reserves which had been sent north to assist them. This hill formed an important part of the English system of defenses. There

were, however, other hills to the west of it which remained in Allied hands.

The fighting in this attack was of the most desperate character. The Lys Valley is narrow, compared with the valley of the Somme, and the great German armies crowded into the new and small salient created by their advance were subjected to terrific artillery fire from the British guns on the high ground surrounding it to the west. Their losses were great, but they kept on with the utmost determination. This ridge of hills, of which Kemmel was one, was the last natural defensive position between the Germans and the coast. Had they taken it, nothing could have prevented them from reaching the channel ports and thus realizing their long-cherished ambition. But although the Germans got as far as Merville, just east of the important railway junction at Hazebrouck, they could progress no further. Field-Marshal Haig issued his famous order, telling his men that they were fighting with their backs to the wall and must die rather than give up more ground, and the line held. The Germans had driven a second great salient into the Allied lines, the first being in Picardy.

A salient, in military parlance, is an indentation or bulge, formed by forcing back the enemy's lines without breaking them. Thus, in the great drive to Montdidier the Germans advanced in the center nearly fifty miles; yet the two ends of the bulge

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thus formed, resting on Arras in the north and the line of the Oise in the south, held firm. It was as though the Allied lines had been stretched into a huge semicircle, as a rubber band might be stretched, while still tightly held at each end. The same conditions existed in the valley of the Lys. The anchor positions of the salient at the northern and southern ends held fast, and the Germans were unable to take them. The kaiser came in person to witness the attack on Kemmel Hill, and some of his utterances at this period of the war indicate that he felt not the least doubt of a great German victory. Yet by the first of May General von Ludendorff had so exhausted himself by his attempts that it was a whole month before the German armies were once more able to make an advance. The Allies used the month to good advantage in strengthening their positions.

The third great drive of the Germans took place at the end of May, two months after the opening of the campaign in Picardy, and proved to be as much of a surprise to the Allies as those which preceded it had been. This time the Germans struck straight toward Paris.

They had employed the weeks which had elapsed since the drive in Flanders in making their usual careful preparations. The world wondered, during these weeks, why Marshal Foch did not strike. The great strategist, however, intended to do far more than merely drive the Germans back on the

Picardy front; he was maturing plans to win the war. Meanwhile, the steady stream of American troops crossing to France at the rate of a quarter of a million men a month was providing him with the forces he needed with which to strike, when in his opinion the time to strike had come.

The third German drive was made on a front of about thirty-five miles, and was aimed toward the south, from the positions the German armies had held for so long upon the north bank of the river Aisne. Its objective was Paris, and there is no doubt that it caught the Allies napping. The French front, naturally very strong because of the hold they had secured the year before upon the high ridge north of the Aisne known as the Chemin des Dames, was lightly held, and many of the troops on this part of the front were veterans of the intense fighting in Picardy and Flanders, who had been sent to the Aisne sector to rest. The Chemin des Dames was thought to be the strongest natural position along the entire western front, and it is unlikely that the French expected the Germans to attack it. When they did so, the German armies under the command of the crown-prince tore the Allied line to pieces.

The French and British troops in the front lines from Soissons in the west to Rheims in the east were almost annihilated, and the Germans crossed the Aisne on a wide front. Between them and Paris lay three rivers, all valuable as defensive

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positions—first the Vesle, then the Ourcq, then the Marne. These rivers were very familiar to the Germans, since it was across them that they had retreated northward after their great defeat at the Battle of the Marne in 1914. So complete were the preparations of the Germans, so great their numbers, that they swept almost without a check across two of these rivers and once more found themselves approaching Paris at the Marne. Again the huge German machine slowed up of its own weight. Rheims had been placed in a dangerous salient, but the attack died down. Soissons was once more in German hands. The situation looked blacker to the Allies than ever.

The German thrust toward Paris reached the banks of the Marne at the town of Château-Thierry, a name which will always be famous in American history as that of the place where a battalion of United States machine gunners, belonging to the Marine Corps, checked the victorious German advance. These men, brought to the front in motor-vehicles, went into battle on June 6, and by their coolness and bravery prevented the Germans from crossing the river at this point. Château-Thierry lies on both sides of the Marne. The American machine gunners held the south bank, and served their guns so effectively from behind ruined walls and other shelters along the bank of the river that all the efforts of the Ger-

mans to cross were in vain. At last the old stone bridge across the river was blown up by French engineers, and the many Germans crowded upon it perished. American troops had already distinguished themselves in France, in the taking of Cantigny, and the Allied commanders felt no doubts as to their bravery, but it was at Château-Thierry that the world came to realize their value as soldiers under the most striking and dramatic conditions.

As soon as the drive toward the Marne came to a standstill, the Germans attempted another maneuver. The great bulge in the Picardy country toward Amiens, and that in the Marne region toward Paris, were separated, hung up, as it were, by the French positions between them, along the river Oise. If these positions could be taken, and the French driven toward the southwest, the two great salients could be united in one, forming a vast semicircle from Arras to Rheims, the circumference of which would almost touch Paris. With a salient so vast in his hands, von Ludendorff would have the room necessary to maneuver his great armies in a final drive toward the French capital. This attack along the Oise had as its objective the city of Compiègne. To the satisfaction of the Allies, it failed. The French lines were held in force, and although the Germans managed to gain a few miles, the attack brought them

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no results of importance, and French counter-attacks soon regained much of the territory which had been lost.

Meanwhile, desperate fighting continued along the Marne front, in which United States troops covered themselves with glory. At Belleau Wood, on the Metz-to-Paris road, furious attacks were launched by picked German troops. They were opposed by units of the Marine Corps, and here some of the most terrible fighting of the war took place. The marines, with superb courage, not only broke the German attacks but advanced, and by June 11 had captured most of the wood. It was an immensely strong position, filled with concealed machine-gun nests, but in spite of the strength of the position, the best German troops were outfought, and the wood taken at greater cost to the enemy than to the Americans. So pleased were the French by this success that they officially changed the name of the wood to the "*Bois de la Brigade de Marine*" (Wood of the Marine Brigade).

Again, on July 1 American troops captured the town of Vaux, in a brilliant assault, carried out with clockwork-like precision. Everywhere the soldiers from overseas showed a courage, a contempt for danger, which won the admiration of the Allied command. General Pershing had hurried up to the support of the French in the Château-Thierry sector the Third Division, which had

just come from its preliminary training in the trenches, and the Second Division, which had been held in reserve near Montdidier, and which contained the units of the marines who fought so gallantly at Belleau Wood. These regulars and marines proved themselves to be the equals of any troops in the world. Other units were also now available for use with the French, owing to reinforcements which the British had received, and five of the ten divisions which had been operating on the British front were withdrawn for use further south.

In this fighting along the Marne in June and early July, it is reported that on one occasion orders were issued by the French command for the American troops to retire, and that General Omar Bundy, in command of the Second Division, U. S. A., met this order with a reply which thrilled the American public as few things had thrilled it since the beginning of the war. "We regret being unable to follow the counsels of our masters, the French," General Bundy is said to have written, "but the American flag has been compelled to retire. This is unendurable, and none of our soldiers would understand not being asked to do whatever is necessary to reestablish a situation which is humiliating to us and unacceptable to our country's honor. We are going to counter-attack."

Counter-attack they did—presumably, however,

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with the permission of the supreme command—with the result that the German advance toward Paris was stopped. All America sent up a cry of triumph. The American troops had met the best men that Germany had to offer, and had beaten them decisively. Many persons believe that but for the valor of these American troops Paris would have fallen.

It is impossible to say just what effect the fighting at this point had on the general situation. That so brilliant a commander as Marshal Foch, with his great drive against the weakly-held German right flank in preparation, would have left the road to Paris open, seems incredible. Possibly he issued the order to retire, knowing that the further the Germans got south of the Marne, the worse their situation would be when they attempted to get back. The French and British had faced a similar situation in 1914, which culminated in the first Battle of the Marne. Only their long and painful retreat made that victory possible. It would undoubtedly have been humiliating to the American forces to be obliged to fall back, but the Allies had been obliged to retreat on many occasions in the past, and had done so without loss of morale.

And yet, in spite of these considerations, it is probable that this action on the part of the American troops around Château-Thierry did more to bring about Germany's final defeat than any num-

ber of tactical successes would have done. It told the German soldiers something that they had not yet fully realized, something that their leaders had carefully hidden from them—that the American fighting-man was not only their equal but their superior. This knowledge, spreading rapidly throughout the German Army, and then to the people at home, caused an impairment of morale of incalculable value to the Allies. The Germans realized that victory against increasing numbers of such men was impossible, and hence it may well be said that the American successes at Château-Thierry marked the beginning of the end of the war. Psychological factors are often as important as—sometimes more important than—actual victories in the field. Had the American forces carried out their orders and retreated, Paris might not have fallen, but the Germans would have said to themselves, “The Americans are falling back. They are afraid to face us,” and this belief on their part would have greatly strengthened their determination to win. On the contrary, the brilliant work of the American regulars and marines disheartened them, made them see that their efforts were hopeless. As a result, the German armies began to go backward. From their defeat at Belleau Wood on they never won a battle of any consequence. A German officer, colonel of a guard regiment, said to his captors, “These Americans are terrible. For every ten you kill, there

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are a hundred in their places, seeming to spring from the ground. Nothing seems to stop them, and we—we are weary of war.” It is of particular interest to note, as an example of the bravery with which the American soldiers in France fought, that during the many engagements in which they took part, they captured from the Germans close to fifty thousand men, while themselves losing in prisoners less than five thousand.

General von Ludendorff, everywhere foiled in his attempts to secure a decision, now began to prepare for a final effort. The summer was rapidly slipping away. The steady flow of troops from America continued. If the German high command had ever felt any doubts of the ability of the American soldier to fight, those doubts had been fully set at rest. It was indeed “now or never” if Germany was to win a victory during the remaining weeks of 1918. Von Ludendorff hurried his preparations. He was ready to resume his drive across the Marne by July 15. It was the only thing he could do. In the valley of the Lys, in Picardy, he could not hope to accomplish now what he had failed to accomplish in the spring. The Allied lines had been too well reinforced. In desperation he struck straight for Paris, hoping that such a brilliant success as the capture of the French capital would restore his rapidly diminishing military reputation and delude the grumbling

people at home into believing that they had really won a victory.

The attack took place on the anniversary of the fall of the Bastille, or to be exact, in the early morning hours of the day after, the Germans supposing, no doubt, that after the celebration of their national holiday the French would be unprepared. The armies of the crown-prince flung themselves at the Allied lines on a front which extended from Château-Thierry east and north around Rheims, and on through the Champagne country half-way to Verdun. The attack was almost a total failure. From Rheims eastward the French, assisted by British, American, Italian, and Polish troops, did not budge an inch. On the contrary, under the brilliant leadership of General Gouraud, they threw back the attacking columns with tremendous losses and in some places succeeded in gaining ground.

In this fighting east of Rheims General Gouraud introduced new tactics. When the German bombardment of his front-line positions began, he withdrew his men to the rear. Then, when the Germans advanced over the shattered trenches expecting the French to be annihilated, they were first met with a terrific curtain of fire, or "barrage," as it is called, after which the Allied troops swept forward and cut them to pieces with the bayonet.

These barrages, first introduced by the French,

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soon became an important factor in infantry advances. By carefully regulating the fire of a large number of guns, usually of the French 75-millimeter type, stationed far in the rear, it was found possible to place ahead of the advancing troops a wall of exploding shells, usually shrapnel, through which it was almost certain death to advance. Sheltered behind this curtain of fire the men formed for the attack, and when the barrage was "lifted," that is, when the range was increased so that the line of exploding shells was placed further ahead, the troops swept forward. When this movement of the fire curtain was continuous, the curtain slowly advancing, it was called a "creeping" or "rolling" barrage, and the attacking troops were expected to follow behind it, taking care not to advance too rapidly and thus be caught in the fire of their own guns.

General Gouraud's success prevented the Germans from driving another great salient into the Allied lines between Rheims and Verdun, and thus taking the French and American lines south of Verdun in the rear. But it was in the loop west of Rheims, the wedge projecting down to the Marne at Château-Thierry, that the danger lay. In spite of the brilliant work done by the American machine-gun detachments in holding the bridges across the Marne at Château-Thierry in June, the Germans had been able to effect crossings of the river further to the east, and were making

a desperate attempt to work their way behind the city of Rheims and thus surround and capture it. As a result, the troops at Château-Thierry had been obliged to withdraw. Then came the final German effort to reach Paris.

The drive across the Marne was no more successful than had been that further east. The concentration of German troops at the point of the wedge was large and the crown-prince, in the hope of breaking the Allied lines, threw into the attack his very best men. The Germans were now about forty miles from Paris, and to the general public the situation looked dark, although Marshal Foch was about to afford the enemy a great surprise, of which the public knew nothing.

When the troops of the crown-prince swept across the Marne they were heavily attacked by the American and French forces south of the river, and thrown back with enormous losses. Once again the Germans were outfought. Château-Thierry was retaken and the German backward movement had begun.

The great German offensive of 1918 came to an end at the Marne. General von Ludendorff had sacrificed a vast number of men, his reserves were greatly depleted, yet he was as far from victory as ever. In spite of the reassuring reports issued by the great general staff, reports intended to allay the growing discontent of the German people, Germany was beaten, and the kaiser and his

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generals knew it. Now Marshal Foch, at last ready to strike, began his tremendous counter-offensive.

CHAPTER XXVII

THE GREAT BATTLE OF 1918

The Allied Counter-Offensive Begins

ON July 18 Marshal Foch struck his first great blow against the forces of the kaiser, an attack along the German right flank from Château-Thierry northwest to the city of Soissons. It was conducted by French and American troops under the command of General Mangin, and achieved a great success.

As we have seen, the Marne salient or wedge was over thirty miles broad at its base, which ran eastward from Soissons to a point north of Rheims. As the German advance progressed toward the Marne, the salient became narrower, finally ending in a point which rested upon the Marne in the neighborhood of Château-Thierry. So confident had the Germans been of success that they did not take steps to protect properly their long western flank, extending from Soissons to Château-Thierry. It was their weak point, and Marshal Foch knew it. Hence he began to concentrate his forces to the west of the German line of advance, bringing up large bodies of men and many guns under cover of darkness and conceal-

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ing them in the forest of Compiègne. Many American divisions, even those with but slight training, were placed at Marshal Foch's disposal by General Pershing, and did splendid work in the attack. Without the usual preliminary bombardment, the advance began early on the morning of July 18, behind a rolling barrage, and made rapid progress. In spite of the reserves brought up by the enemy, the attack progressed steadily, and at the expiration of five days' fighting the Americans had taken the heights dominating Soissons, while all along the line they and the French troops fighting with them had captured many villages, and sent to the rear thousands of prisoners and a large number of guns. The German leaders began to see that unless they quickly withdrew their men from the Marne salient, there was every probability that they would be cut off.

Before taking up a discussion of the battles which now followed one another in rapid succession, let us examine briefly Marshal Foch's strategy and compare it with that of General von Ludendorff.

The German commander-in-chief placed his faith in huge, powerful strokes, resembling blows with a battle-ax, or a two-handed sword. It has been characteristic of the Germans throughout history to fight with such weapons. After each of these great blows there was necessarily a long wait, while the next one was being prepared, and dur-

ing such a wait the enemy was able to recover himself and strengthen his positions. Marshal Foch, on the contrary, began to strike the German lines at many points, delivering against them lightning-like thrusts not unlike those made with a French rapier, each thrust forming part of a definite and comprehensive plan which had as its purpose not merely to drive the Germans out of Belgium and France but to defeat them utterly by capturing or destroying their forces.

Only by capture or destruction can an army be finally defeated. Mere gains of territory here and there result in nothing decisive. Marshal Foch had made up his mind to crush the Germans, and it is a noteworthy fact that when the kaiser's government finally asked for a cessation of hostilities, the German armies were at the great French commander's mercy, their situation so critical that within a short time they would have been obliged to surrender. Such was Marshal Foch's ambitious purpose, and in spite of the fact that the fighting season was half gone when he began his counter-attack in July, he still hoped that with ordinary weather conditions he would be able to accomplish his aims before the end of the year.

We must look at the map of Belgium and France to appreciate what now followed. The northern end or flank of the German line rested, as we know, upon the Belgian coast of the North Sea, the southern end on the frontier of Switzerland.

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Neither could be "turned"; that is, Allied forces could not by any strategic means be moved around the ends of the German line, since the heavy German fortifications on the coast of Belgium prevented the landing of such forces in the north, while the neutrality of Switzerland prevented an outflanking operation in the south. Marshal Foch conceived two great plans. One was to surround and capture the German armies in Belgium and France by crushing in the two ends of the gigantic salient which their northern battle-line formed, one end of which rested on the North Sea, the other on the fortress of Metz, near Verdun, and the other was to drive a great wedge of his own into German territory south of Metz, thus cutting the whole German line from Belgium to the Swiss border in two. Such an operation, if successful, would result in the German armies in the north—that is, in Belgium and France—being captured, while those in the south, from Metz down the eastern frontiers of France to Switzerland, being separated from the northern armies, could not go to their assistance.

No such vast plan of campaign was ever before conceived by a military commander, because no such conditions of battle as existed in France had ever before confronted such a commander. Before the fighting ended in the early part of November, Marshal Foch had practically accomplished the first part of his plan. The second part was

never carried out, because the war was over before it could be put into execution, but a large American army under General Pershing was ready to strike on the very day that hostilities ceased.

The attack of General Mangin against the western side of the Marne salient, which began on July 18, sent the Germans hurrying back from the Marne toward the positions from which they had started, on the Aisne. But they could not retire immediately, because they had sent down into the Marne salient immense stores of food, ammunition, and other supplies, and many heavy guns, in anticipation of their advance upon Paris, and all this accumulated material they desired to take back with them. Hence they fought desperately to hold back the French-American advance from the west, as well as the advance from the south being made by French and American troops who had crossed the Marne to its northern bank and were driving the Germans ahead of them.

Attacks were also begun from Rheims westward, and for a time the public thought that Foch intended to drive from both directions across the base of the Marne salient and cut it off, as one might close the mouth of a bag by drawing a string, with the result that the men and material in the salient would be captured. The Marne salient, however, was too broad at its base, and too shallow, for such a plan to succeed, and it is unlikely that Foch expected it to do so. Also, the German

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resistance was very strong, many divisions being rushed to the crown-prince's aid from the armies in Flanders. What Marshal Foch did accomplish was to drive the Germans back toward the Aisne with extremely heavy losses in both men and material. The greater part of their heavy guns they saved, but they were obliged to abandon or destroy large quantities of ammunition and other stores.

Since the opening of the German offensive in March, the nature of the fighting, as we have before pointed out, had changed, and was now, for the time being at least, largely in the open. The American troops, unskilled though most of them were in trench warfare, were able in this open fighting to take their places beside any soldiers in the world. This rendered them available almost as soon as they landed, and these young men from every part of the Union—fresh from cities, villages, farms, of many races and creeds, white or black—were soon displaying the most superb heroism all along the battle-front, from Flanders to Verdun. At the river Ourcq, where the Germans attempted to make a stand on their retreat to the Aisne, at the river Vesle, where they held for a considerable period, these young Americans performed countless feats of valor. In fact, the French officers, who had been obliged by great losses to conserve the lives of their men in every possible way, considered the Americans too reckless.

Fearlessly led, they would dash forward with the utmost bravery against the hundreds of concealed machine-gun nests with which the Germans strove to cover their retreat, and heedless of their losses, would kill the gunners and capture the guns. These machine-gun detachments consisted of picked men, left behind by the Germans to hold back the enemy while the bulk of their forces escaped, and although they faced almost certain death, they fought with the greatest courage and determination. The English and French had learned by bitter experience to attack these guns, hidden in every conceivable place, by the use of tanks and light field-artillery, or by outflanking them and taking them in the rear, but the Americans at first disdained all such devices, and swept forward in costly frontal attacks. It was not long, however, before they, too, learned not to sacrifice themselves so recklessly; but, as had been pointed out, this very recklessness helped to win the war by showing the Germans the nature of the men with whom they had to deal.

Throughout all this open fighting there was a tremendous use of airplanes, not only for observing the disposition of the enemy's forces, and photographing his lines, but also in actual fighting. On many occasions airplanes would descend to within a few hundred feet of the opposing columns, and attack them with machine-gun fire, while supply-trains were frequently dispersed and

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destroyed by the use of both machine guns and bombs. In these operations the American aviators did notable work, although usually in planes of foreign make, owing to the slowness with which the great airplane program in America went forward. This was true of many classes of equipment. General Pershing reported, after the close of the war, that only 1379 airplanes of American make were in France when the war ended, and that in the artillery branch all the guns of the 75-millimeter (3-inch) and 155-millimeter (6-inch) types in use by the army were manufactured in France by the French Government, with the exception of 109 of the first-named type. The same thing was true of tanks. Had the war extended into the year 1919, the American Army would have been fully supplied from factories at home, but through the genius of Marshal Foch it was brought to a close earlier than any one expected. The shortage which existed in tanks may have had something to do with the methods which the American troops employed when attacking machine-gun nests.

While the Germans were still trying to extricate themselves from the Marne salient, Marshal Foch struck the second of his lightning-like blows. This time the British, along the river Somme, were chosen for the attack, so that instead of striking at either side of the great Picardy salient, the blow was aimed at its center. Under General Rawlin-



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A TUNNEL OF THE ST. QUENTIN CANAL

One of the "impregnable" positions of the Hindenburg line, which was captured by American troops



St. John's, Newfoundland

THE OTHER STREET



St. John's, Newfoundland

THE OTHER STREET

CHATEAU-DE-MAINE

son the British troops advanced with their accustomed gallantry, and in a series of drives which began on August 8, forced the Germans back in a battle which has been called the Third Battle of the Somme, the second having been the German advance in March-April, and the first the great battle which took place in 1916, just after the attack on Verdun. This Third Battle of the Somme was hotly contested, the Germans resisting with great bravery, but soon Albert, Bray, and Combles had fallen and the enemy was forced back along the river in the direction of Peronne.

Then followed other blows, now here, now there, short, swift, decisive. When strong resistance developed against an attack at one point, and the Germans had strengthened this part of their line by drawing reserves to it from some other point, Foch, instead of driving on, would cease his efforts here and strike unexpectedly elsewhere. As a result the German leaders became bewildered under the rain of blows. They did not know at what point on their long lines the next attack might come, and hence hesitated to shift their reserves. Many divisions had been sent toward the Marne, to help the crown-prince out of his dangerous position. Then, too, the new German lines were far longer than the old ones, curving as they did around the great salients which had been won, and being longer, they required many more men to hold them.

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At this stage of the battle the German leaders apparently concluded that having tried von Ludendorff's plan of a great offensive, and failed, they would now try von Hindenburg's, which, it will be remembered, was to stand on the defensive in Belgium and northern France, and defy the Allies to drive them back. But such a stand could not be made in the hastily constructed defenses which formed the new German line. For this it was necessary to go back to the supposedly impregnable Hindenburg positions, and hence a retreat eastward was begun. The Germans intended to carry out this retreat slowly, withdrawing their troops in a safe and orderly manner, hoping to hold off the Allies until the approach of winter rendered further operations impossible. Then, their statesmen argued, their armies could be rested and refitted during the winter months, and meanwhile a peace might be secured by diplomatic means which would not be unfavorable to Germany.

But Marshal Foch had no intention of allowing the Germans to do this if it lay in his power to prevent it. He determined not only so to shatter the German armies by constant attacks that they would reach the Hindenburg Line in no condition to defend it, but also to carry out operations which had as their purpose the destruction of the Hindenburg Line itself. He saw things on a huge scale, and therein lies his greatness. A smaller man might well have been content to turn what a

few weeks before had seemed a German victory into a German defeat. Foch, however, had bigger plans. He not only meant to defeat the Germans: he expected to win the war.

American troops, acting with the British under General Rawlinson, captured the town of Morlancourt, after a brilliant attack, on August 10. Meanwhile, those operating north of Château-Thierry had crossed the Ourcq, and taken the town of Fismes, on the river Vesle. Elsewhere, with the British and French, the "dough-boys" were giving a good account of themselves, fighting hard but cleanly, and receiving everywhere the praise of the generals in command.

All along the western battle-front, from Rheims to the North Sea, a series of blows was now crushing the Germans back toward the Hindenburg Line. The French, driving eastward from Montdidier, took Lassigny and Roye after desperate hand-to-hand fighting, and their attacks northward, to the west of Soissons, began to threaten the Germans' hold on the Aisne River even before the forces of the crown-prince, in their retreat, had reached it. English armies, with Americans aiding, were hammering at the Lys salient, and before long the Germans were driven from Kemmel Hill, and were falling back once more toward Messines Ridge.

The Third Battle of the Somme began on a front from the vicinity of Montdidier in the south, to

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and beyond Albert, and by the end of August extended as far north as Lens, its front being then over thirty miles. On August 24, by capturing the strong position of Thiepval, the British forced the enemy out of Bapaume and threatened Cambrai. Since the eighth the British had taken sixty thousand prisoners and several hundred guns, and the French were not far behind. On September 1 the British took Peronne, and were driving south-east toward St.-Quentin.

The French meanwhile were carrying out a series of brilliant operations east of Noyon, which they had taken, along the river Oise. They purposed through these to work themselves into positions from which they might encircle the St.-Gobain Massif, a high plateau situated at the elbow of the Hindenburg Line, where it ceased to run southward and turned sharply to the east. This position, with the fortified cities of Laon and La Fere, formed the great central anchor of the Hindenburg Line, and was considered impregnable.

This Hindenburg Line, to which we have so often referred, was the position from which the Germans started their great drive in March. At some points they had advanced far to the west of it, while at others they had not advanced at all. One of the latter lay between Arras and Lens, at the northern end of the battle-front. Another lay north of Verdun, along the river Meuse. Mar-

shal Foch now began operations designed to cut the Hindenburg Line at both points, while the Germans were retreating, bewildered, between them.

The attack in the north was made by the British under Generals Horne and Byng. On the twenty-fifth of August Field-Marshal Haig's forces crossed the Hindenburg Line in the direction of Cambrai and Douai, south of Lens, and advanced down the Arras-Cambrai road toward what was known as the Drocourt-Queant switch-line, that is, a line built between those two towns in the rear of the old Hindenburg Line, and supposed so to reinforce it as to render it impossible of capture. On the twenty-eighth Croisilles fell, followed by Bullecourt, and on the second of September the British had cut completely through the Drocourt-Queant switch-line and were advancing in the open within a few miles of Douai and Cambrai. When we speak of the British, we refer of course to troops not only from England, Scotland, Ireland, and Wales, but also from Canada, New Zealand, Australia, and the other British possessions. All vied with one another in the bravery with which they fought for the mother country.

This successful attack upon the Drocourt-Queant switch-line, which was carried out by the combined operation of infantry, tanks, and aircraft, was one of the decisive battles of the campaign. British cavalry now began to operate in

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the rear of the Hindenburg Line. Very much, however, remained to be done. Behind the Hindenburg Line were other strong positions, connected with it by cross-lines, and a break at one point was local in its effect and did not mean that the whole line must fall. Successful in the north, Marshal Foch now turned to the southern end of the line, near Verdun.

Here stood General Pershing, with a large and constantly increasing American army, ready to advance northward along the Meuse and cut the Hindenburg Line at its southern end. Before he could do this, however, it was necessary that the great St.-Mihiel salient, where the Germans had succeeded in getting across the Meuse south of Verdun in 1914, should first be eliminated. It will be remembered that this salient projected out across the Allied lines like a huge wedge, its point at the town of St.-Mihiel, on the Meuse, its base resting upon the Hindenburg Line in front of its powerful anchor position, the fortress of Metz. While this salient existed General Pershing could not with safety advance north along the Meuse, for the salient would lie across his rear, a source of great danger. To the Americans, therefore, was assigned the task of "wiping out" the St.-Mihiel salient. This was the first extensive operation undertaken by the American Army as an independent force, and needless to say it was carried

out in a manner to uphold the army's best traditions.

On September 13 the battle began, and in just twenty-seven hours the salient had been destroyed, one hundred and fifty-five square miles of French territory had been recovered from the enemy, and over fifteen thousand officers and men had been captured, together with hundreds of guns and large stores of ammunition and supplies. No operation on any front during the course of the war had been carried out with greater precision and dispatch, and the news of the clean-cut and decisive victory surprised and delighted the Allied world.

The attack was made by two separate forces, one driving north against the southerly side of the salient, the other driving east against its westerly side. It was planned to have these two forces meet, and thus cut off the salient as though with a pair of pincers. The distance to be covered was less in this case than in the case of the Marne salient; and General Pershing's plan to "close the bag," and thus capture the enemy within it, succeeded. Accompanied by tanks, aircraft, and every other device of modern warfare, the "dough-boys" attacked and once again the Germans found them to be irresistible. As soon as the attack began to make definite progress the German commanders, realizing that they could not hold the

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salient, began to withdraw their troops from it. Many escaped, but the number captured was large.

It is of interest to note the vastness of the preparations made necessary for even a moderate-sized modern battle; for the operation at St.-Mihiel, compared with some of the great battles of the war, such as that at Verdun, was not large. It required, in the first place, the services of 600,000 men, in and behind the lines, more than took part on both sides in any battle of the Civil War. A hundred thousand detailed maps and 40,000 photographs were printed and distributed, showing accurately every trench, gun position, hillock, stream, road, or path within the enemy's lines. Five thousand miles of telephone wire were laid, connecting 6000 instruments. To operate this system alone required the services of 10,000 men. Carrier-pigeons, to carry messages back from the lines, were employed in thousands. Thirty-five hospital trains were provided for the wounded and over 70,000 beds, of which, fortunately, only a small proportion were needed. More than 1,500,000 shells were fired during the battle, and millions of rounds of small-arm ammunition, while 4800 automobile trucks were used to carry the men and supplies to the front. These few figures show clearly the magnitude of such an operation.

In the St.-Mihiel engagement the American air forces were assisted by squadrons from both the French and the British, so that the total air forces

engaged were the largest that had been assembled for any one operation on the western front. This gave the supremacy of the air entirely to the attack, and prevented the Germans from observing the preparations which were being made.

At the same time that American armies were driving across the base of the salient from the south and west, French colonial troops attacked the point of the salient, opposite St.-Mihiel, and made their scheduled advance. After an artillery preparation lasting four hours, the two American forces, numbering about two hundred thousand men on the fighting-line, went forward, with tanks and squads of wire-cutters; the entanglements were leveled; the infantry swept over the German front and support trenches, throwing the enemy into confusion. Almost before the Germans realized what had happened, the advancing columns met in the neighborhood of the town of Thiaucourt. So quick was their advance, so complete the surprise, that in some places the German cooks served to the Americans hot food that had been prepared for their own men, while a battery of guns in the salient kept on firing for hours quite unaware of the fact that they had long since been surrounded.

The American victory at St.-Mihiel brought the Allied lines close to the outlying forts of the German fortress of Metz, which, it will be remembered, was the scene of a great French surrender during the Franco-Prussian War in 1870. Soon

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these outlying forts were under bombardment, and the civil population of the city began to flee into the interior. Keeping the German lines before Metz under constant pressure, General Pershing was now ready to begin his advance along the Meuse north of Verdun. His objective was Sedan, twenty-five miles to the north, and to reach it it was necessary to clear the Germans out of the great Argonne Forest, and to cross the most powerfully constructed line of fortifications in the world. Meanwhile, over a million and a half American troops had been landed in France, and the two-million mark was rapidly being approached.

A general survey of the situation in France and Belgium at this stage of the great battle shows that, in the north, the Allied attacks had cut the Hindenburg Line east of Arras, thus threatening the railroad running north through Cambrai, Douai, and Lille, and then eastward through Belgium into Germany by way of Liège. This was the first great avenue of retreat by which the Germans might hope to take their armies back to the Rhine, in case of defeat. In the south, their other rail line of retreat ran through Mézières and Sedan, toward which latter point General Pershing was now about to advance. In the center of the great arc, the German armies, badly beaten, were struggling to get back to the Hindenburg positions, far in their rear, and forced to turn at every

step and meet the terrific smashes of the English and French. The German situation was daily becoming more critical. Let us leave this portion of the battle-front for a moment, and see what had been going on in other parts of the world.

CHAPTER XXVIII

THE GREAT BATTLE OF 1918

Operations in Italy, Macedonia, Turkey, and Russia

IN June, 1918, General von Ludendorff ordered the Austrians, who had remained quiet for a long time along the Piave River in Italy, to attack. He realized that his great drives in France had brought him no nearer to victory. The Austrian Army was still large and powerful, and he hoped that greater success might attend its efforts than had rewarded those of the Germans on the western front. The object of the drive was to force the Italian armies along the river and in the mountains south of Trent to give way, thus allowing the Austrian forces to overrun northern Italy. This accomplished, the way into France from the southeast would be open, and the entire western battle-front might then be taken in the rear. It was an ambitious plan, but it failed.

The Italian armies had been thoroughly reorganized after the disaster at Caporetto the preceding year, and, with the assistance of British and French divisions stationed on their front, gave the world a surprise. The Austrian attack was not only a huge failure, resulting in only

trifling gains, but on June 23, a week after it began, the Italians counter-attacked so successfully that they drove the enemy back over the Piave with losses estimated at close to one hundred and fifty thousand men. Here, however, the Italian armies halted, and the front again became quiet. Meanwhile brilliant torpedo-boat attacks on the Austrian naval bases of Polo and Cattaro, in the Adriatic, had resulted in the destruction of several Austrian war-ships of the largest type, while at the same time Italian contingents were fighting with splendid courage along the battle-front in France.

Late in October, the Italian armies, acting in accordance with Marshal Foch's extensive plans, themselves attacked. A regiment of American troops had been sent to fight with them, not because of any military necessity, but to show the Italian people that America was with them, heart and soul.

The Italian attack began on October 24, and resulted in one of the greatest victories of the war. Close to two million Austrian troops held the front and reserve positions along the line from the mountains to Venice, at the head of the Adriatic, against which the Italian armies, with five divisions of French and English and the small American contingent, now hurled themselves with the utmost valor. The Austrian lines crumpled as though they had been made of straw. In ten days,

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they had lost four hundred thousand prisoners, and close to seven thousand guns, while the losses in materials and supplies of every sort were colossal. Hundreds of villages, thousands of square miles of territory, were freed from Austrian domination, and the advance had penetrated the enemy's lines for an average distance of thirty miles. Marshal Foch had delayed ordering the attack until bad weather had begun to make the provisioning of the Austrian armies in the mountains difficult. Every detail of the attack was thought out in advance with the greatest care, and the rapidity with which the Italian armies swept forward has seldom if ever been equaled in military history. Driving toward the northeast, the forces of General Diaz reached Vittorio Veneto and Longarone, and cut the Austrians in the mountains off from those along the Piave, rendering their situation hopeless. On October 29, five days after the attack began, an Austrian officer came through the Italian lines under a flag of truce and asked that the fighting be stopped and an armistice granted. The Italians, suspecting some trick and questioning his authority, refused to enter into negotiations, and the attack went on. The next day a large delegation of Austrian army and navy officers, headed by one of their generals, approached the Italian front near Rovereto and was taken at once to the headquarters of General Diaz. From here the request for an armistice was trans-

mitted to the Supreme War Council of the Allies at Paris (a council composed of representatives of the Allied nations, with power to deal with all matters pertaining to the military conduct of the war) and terms which amounted virtually to Austria's unconditional surrender were signed. By November 4 the Italian flag was flying over Trent and Trieste, and Germany's strongest ally had retired from the war. All Italy was ablaze with joy.

Another of Germany's allies had preceded Austria, however, in abandoning the cause of the Central Powers. This was Bulgaria, of which we have heard little since her unexpected attack upon Serbia in 1915.

Affairs in the Balkan States had been quiet, on the surface at least, for a long time. The party in Greece favorable to the Allies, headed by Venizelos, had been steadily growing stronger, and in the spring of 1917, as we have shown, the Allied nations forced the abdication of King Constantine, and placed his son Alexander on the throne. The real ruler, however, was Venizelos, and under his direction the Greek Army had been quietly getting ready for war. On June 29 Greece declared war on Germany, and the Allies at Saloniki gained valuable reinforcements. It was not until September, 1918, however, that the blow against Bulgaria was struck, and then it came with the force of a thunderbolt.



Map of the Balkan States, showing the location and composition of the Allied forces north of Saloniki.

A part of the Serbian Army had, it will be remembered, been driven into the mountains of Albania by the Austro-German and Bulgarian invaders. These men, ragged and foot-sore, but still undaunted, struggled through the mountains to the coast of the Adriatic, and were transported from there to the island of Corfu, through the efforts of the Italian Navy. Here they were rested, fed, and



Admiral Sir George B. Edwards

EDWARDS WHO HELD HIS OWN

First Lord of the Admiralty
1910-1911

Admiral Sir George B. Edwards
1911-1912



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SUPREME FIGURES IN THE WAR COUNCILS OF THE EUROPEAN ALLIES

Left to right—Marshal Foch, Premier Clemenceau of France, Premier Lloyd George of England, Premier Orlando and Foreign Secretary Baron Sonnino of Italy

equipped by the Allies, and later they rejoined the units stationed at the front north of Saloniki. In 1916, assisted by the French, the Serbian forces made a considerable advance toward the northeast, and succeeded in driving back the Bulgarians and their Austrian and German allies from their positions around Monastir. On November 19 the city fell, and the Serbians were once more in possession of their ancient capital, as well as of several thousand prisoners and many guns. Here the advance rested, until the great blow of 1918. The Allied force, which had lain idle at Saloniki for so long, and been the subject of so much adverse criticism, was now about to vindicate its long months of preparation.

This force at Saloniki, now under the command of the French general Franchet d'Esperey, was made up of soldiers of many nationalities. In addition to the French, British, Italian, Serbian, and Greek contingents, there were men from the oppressed provinces of Austria, who had either been made prisoners, while fighting against their will in the Austrian Army, or had escaped from that country and joined their brothers in the fight for freedom. These Yugo-Slavs and Czechò-Slovaks hoped, as a result of the war, to achieve their independence.

Owing to the supreme efforts which Germany and Austria were making in France and Italy, the bulk of the forces of these two countries had been

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withdrawn from the Saloniki front, leaving to the Bulgarians the principal part in the task of keeping the Allies in check. There were, however, still considerable forces of Austrians operating in Albania, and both Germans and Austrians with the Bulgarian armies in the neighborhood of Monastir.

In a general way, the Bulgarian forces were divided into two parts, one part operating in the west, around Monastir, the other in the east, around Lake Doiran, and along their own frontier. The valley of the Vardar, down which, it will be remembered, the great Austro-German invasion under von Mackensen passed in 1915, separated these two Bulgarian armies. In rough and mountainous country of this kind, with few roads or railways, communications are bad, and the supplying of troops with food and ammunition is a difficult problem. The Allied plan of campaign was to cut off the Bulgarian army in the west from that in the east by driving up the Vardar Valley.

On September 14 the attack was begun, and soon spread along the entire front from Monastir to the Bulgarian frontier, a distance of over a hundred miles. On the right, British and Greek troops struck toward the Bulgarian border in the vicinity of Lake Doiran. Serbians, French, and the associated Slavic troops drove against the enemy's center, and around Monastir, while to the extreme left, where the battle-line crossed into

Albania, an Italian army began a great outflanking operation. Along the entire front the Allies were brilliantly successful. Within a week they had advanced up the valley of the Vardar a distance of forty miles, and were threatening the Serbian city of Uskub. On the twenty-sixth of September the British on the right, who had fought their way across the Bulgarian frontier, entered the Bulgarian city of Strumnitza, on the road to Sofia, the capital. Three days earlier the Serbians, fighting savagely both to regain their homes and punish their Bulgarian enemies, stormed the Drenska Massif, forming the defenses of Prilip, and captured that city. French cavalry entered it on September 24 and the Bulgarians were retreating everywhere in the greatest disorder.

The advance up the Vardar soon cut the communications between the two Bulgarian armies, and the forces in the west, finding themselves in danger of capture, began a hurried flight eastward through the hills. By September 30 the French and Serbian forces entered Uskub, the enemy having fled after burning his stores. The battle was by this time a huge rout, with the Allied forces pursuing the fleeing Bulgarians in every direction. So serious had the situation become that as early as September 26 the Bulgarians saw that further resistance was hopeless, and announced that they were sending plenipotentiaries to Allied headquarters asking for a cessation of hostilities. There

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were rumors that the Germans, who had become alarmed by this sudden collapse of one of their allies, were sending von Mackensen with reinforcements from Rumania, but the Bulgarians had had their fill of war. King Ferdinand, the Bulgarian ruler, who as we have previously seen had forced his unfortunate country into the conflict by reason of his bargain with the kaiser, suddenly abdicated in favor of his son Boris and fled from the country.

Negotiations for an armistice were opened with General d'Esperey at Saloniki on September 28, and the Bulgarian envoys were told that the only terms they would be granted amounted to unconditional surrender. Forty-eight hours were allowed them to consider the matter, during which period the fighting was halted. The Bulgarian Government did not hesitate. On the thirtieth of September Bulgaria surrendered unconditionally to the Allies, and withdrew from the war, a month before the collapse of Austria under the heavy blows of Italy. This was the first breach, therefore, in the ranks of the Central Powers, and the effect, both politically and from a military standpoint, was tremendous.

In Germany a sense of defeat rapidly spread. The loss of Bulgaria cut Turkey off from her allies. Neither by the Berlin-to-Bagdad road nor by way of the Danube could the Germans communicate any longer with Constantinople. By

the use of the Bulgarian railroads, now open to the Allies, the forces at Saloniki could be quickly transported southward to the Dardanelles, and the Turkish capital taken; or they could be sent north, thereby not only freeing Rumania from German control, but, by crossing the Danube, quickly invading Austria itself from the south. Already the oppressed races in that loosely bound together country were seething with the spirit of revolt, and it needed only the presence of invading armies to bring about open rebellion. With these conditions in the rear, it is not surprising that the Austrians were unable to withstand the terrific assaults of the Italian armies along the Piave in October.

While Bulgaria's surrender terminated hostilities against her armies, the campaign against the Germans and Austrians in Serbia and Albania proceeded rapidly. French, Italian, Serbian, and Slav forces swept northward, clearing the enemy out of Albania, northern Serbia, and Montenegro. Nish, the strategic point on the Berlin-to-Bagdad railroad, soon fell, while in Albania the port of Durazzo was attacked from the sea by an Allied naval force, in which American submarines were included, and its defenses destroyed. Within a few days the city was occupied by Italian forces operating by land. The Serbians soon after reached the Danube, and crossing it, advanced into Austria. There was virtually no resistance.

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Within a few days Austria herself was to surrender and withdraw from the war.

During the month of September Turkey, with the Bulgarian disaster impending, was threatened in another quarter. We have seen that General Allenby, commanding the British and Allied forces in Palestine, had taken Jerusalem. He was now again on the move.

Opposing him north of Jerusalem, on a line extending from the sea southeastwardly to the river Jordan, were Turkish armies numbering one hundred and fifty thousand men, under the command of the German field-marshal Liman von Sanders. East of the Jordan, and between that river and the Arabian desert, was a considerable force of Arabs, who had revolted against the rule of the sultan, and formed the independent state of Hedjaz, under their king, Hussein I. These Arabs, operating with General Allenby, harassed the left wing of the Turkish armies.

The nature of the country north of Jerusalem caused the British commander to undertake a bold stroke. The valley of the Jordan is separated from the sea-coast by a high range of hills, but along the coast itself is a narrow stretch of fairly level country, sloping down to the sea. General Allenby's plan was first to engage the attention of the Turkish forces by attacking them in the east, along the valley of the Jordan. Then, while they were so engaged, he planned to break through

their lines at the sea-coast by a sudden attack, and to send through the breach thus made a large force of cavalry, which force, by advancing rapidly northward, was to reach the rear of the Turkish armies in the Jordan Valley and surround them. Their flight eastward, across the Jordan, would be prevented by the Arabs.

The plan succeeded perfectly. On September 18 British and French forces began the attack, and the next day cavalry, including camel corps and Indian regiments, were pouring through the breach and sweeping rapidly up the coast. Turning eastward toward the Jordan, this force occupied Nazareth, and the retreat of the two Turkish armies in the Jordan Valley was cut off. A third Turkish army, operating east of the river Jordan, was similarly isolated by the Arabs, who by cutting the railroad to Damascus at Derat, just east of the Sea of Galilee, destroyed their means of retreat. By the twenty-second of September the encirclement of the Turks was complete, and prisoners began to surrender in large numbers. As a result of this remarkable victory General Allenby's forces captured nearly eighty thousand Turks, and five hundred guns. The remaining Turkish armies fled in small detachments into the mountains or the desert, and as an organized force ceased to exist.

The German commander, Field-Marshal von Sanders, was severely criticized at home for allow-

ing his forces to be surrounded. He himself narrowly escaped capture. In explanation of his defeat he said, after the war, that owing to desertions, and the fact that many Turkish troops had been sent to occupy Russian territory in the Caucasus, he had by the first of August lost all hope of offering any effective resistance to General Allenby's advance, and that he had so telegraphed General von Ludendorff, informing the latter that he must have reinforcements. There were no reinforcements available, however, von Ludendorff having his hands full in Belgium and France. Marshal von Sanders's explanation is weak. If he could not resist, he might at least have saved his armies. Nothing can detract from the fact that the Allies, under General Allenby, won a remarkable victory, distinguished as greatly by the skill with which it was planned as by the energy with which it was carried out. Without loss of time the Allied forces pushed on to Damascus.

This historic and beautiful city, the capital of Syria, fell on October 1, the demoralized Turks offering but slight resistance, and the advance continued toward Aleppo, one hundred and eighty miles to the northeast. Progress was very rapid. Another Allied force (that under General Marshall) was advancing toward Aleppo through Mosul and Bagdad. With Constantinople threatened from both the south, at Aleppo, and from the north by the armies at Saloniki, the Turkish Gov-

ernment, on October 12, opened negotiations for peace by sending General Townshend (who, it will be remembered, had been taken prisoner with his forces at Kut-el-Amara, on the Tigris, in 1915) to the British admiral in command in the Mediterranean, with offers of surrender. Four days before, Enver Bey, the Turkish leader and friend of the kaiser, fled, as well as his co-conspirator, Talaat Bey, the Turkish grand vizier. Turkey, like Bulgaria and later on Austria, was now out of the war.

We have referred in the last paragraph to the advance on Aleppo of the British-Indian forces under General Marshall, coming up the Tigris through Bagdad. The plan of joining these forces and those of General Allenby at Aleppo was now approaching its completion. The Turks on the right flank of the British armies advancing north of Bagdad, who had been operating in northern Persia, began a quick retreat from their positions, and the forces of General Marshall advanced to Mosul. From here an advance toward Aleppo was in progress when the war came to an end. With Mesopotamia, Syria, and Palestine in the hands of the Allies, with Arabia free and Armenia crying for independence, there was little left of the once powerful Turkish Empire except the territory immediately surrounding Constantinople.

In Russia a terrible state of affairs existed.

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Anarchy was universal. The Bolsheviki, from murdering the nobility and plundering their castles and estates, had turned upon the middle classes. Lenine and Trotzky, now known to have been German agents, exercised only a nominal control. Out of all this misrule the Germans expected to derive great profit, by placing upon the thrones of the various states into which Russia was breaking up rulers who would be favorable to the plans of the kaiser. The German leaders thought that when the great mass of the population had had enough of Bolshevism, they would welcome even German domination rather than live in a state of anarchy. Thus, despite the unfavorable turn of affairs in the West, Germany thought that if she could bring the vast areas of Russia, extending to the Pacific, under her control, she would have compensation for all that she might lose elsewhere.

There were no organized forces in Russia to fight this scheme of German domination, and the Allies began to see that such forces would have to be provided. A nucleus already existed in the form of a body of Czecho-Slovak prisoners, who had fought in the armies of Austria, and been captured by the Russians. These prisoners, liberated after the peace of Brest Litovsk, instead of returning to Austria, determined to go to the front in France by way of Vladivostok, the Pacific Ocean, America, and the Atlantic, a journey which,

had they completed it, would have taken them nearly around the world. Securing arms and equipment from the disorganized Russians, they began to make their way toward Siberia.

The Bolsheviki, under orders from Lenine, who in turn acted under instructions from Berlin, attempted to stop the Czecho-Slovaks and disarm them. The latter resisted, and seized parts of the great Trans-Siberian Railroad. In this way some of them reached Vladivostok, while others remained in Central Russia, unable to get out because of the opposition of the Bolsheviki between them and the coast.

At this juncture the Allies determined to send troops into Siberia to aid them, and joint forces, including both Americans and Japanese, were landed at Vladivostok. Japanese forces also operated northward from the Chinese border, assisted by Chinese troops and Cossacks who had retreated across the frontier.

Another Allied force, in which Americans were included, was sent into Russia by way of Archangel, and an advance was begun toward the south, against the opposition of the Bolshevik forces, but with the support of the intelligent and more conservative elements of the population.

These expeditions to restore peace and a stable government to the Russian people were still under way when the great war terminated, and while military domination by Germany of that country's

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vast territory was prevented, the future of Russia was very far from being settled.

With this brief review of the operations on outlying fronts, let us now return to the crucial phase of the great battle, in France.

CHAPTER XXIX

THE GREAT BATTLE OF 1918

The Allied Counter-Offensive—Final Phase

WHEN we left the western front, the British had cut the Hindenburg Line in the north, while the Americans, by removing the troublesome St.-Mihiel salient, were about to undertake a similar operation in the south. Marshal Foch was about to strike again at the German center.

Very significant advances had been made daily at several points along the center of the line, in which American troops had taken an increasingly important part.

The advance north of Soissons, as we have seen, was made for the double purpose of encircling the powerful St.-Gobain position and forest on the south, and at the same time of getting behind the high ridge of the Chemin des Dames along the river Aisne. West and north of Soissons the Allied forces were now north of the Aisne, toward which the troops of the crown-prince in the Marne salient, still resisting along the river Vesle, must retreat. Marshal Foch determined that when the Germans in their movement northward reached

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their lines on the Aisne, these lines should already be outflanked.

American troops, in this operation, distinguished themselves in the capture of the Juvigny Plateau, an area of high ground south of the river Ailette, which commanded the approaches to Laon. The attack began on August 28, the Americans being brought up under cover of darkness, in motor-trucks, from another part of the front. Early in the morning they went into battle accompanied by French shock troops, and within fifteen minutes prisoners began to stream back toward the rear. The plateau was heavily fortified, and its defenders resisted desperately, employing their usual machine-gun tactics, but the Allied advance, aided by light French tanks and airplanes, made steady progress. After five days of the most bitter and stubborn fighting, the plateau was cleared, and important positions on the highway running from Soissons northward to St.-Quentin taken. The French commanders everywhere expressed their admiration for the work done by the Americans, and declared that they were proud to command such troops. No soldiers could have fought with greater bravery and spirit.

Further north, the French armies operating south of the Somme advanced rapidly through Roye and Chaulnes toward St.-Quentin and La Fere, thus threatening the St.-Gobain position from the north as it was already being threatened

from the south. Early in September they reached Ham, and were close to the main Hindenburg Line.

North of the Somme the British also were pressing closely upon the heels of the retreating German armies. The troops operating through the break in the Hindenburg Line opposite Arras were close to Douai and the large French city of Lille, both important points on the railway which formed the German main line of retreat on this part of the front.

Now came the shattering blow delivered by Marshal Foch at the German center. On September 18 British forces under General Rawlinson, which included two divisions of Americans, and French forces under General Debeney, attacked the outer defenses of the Hindenburg Line north of St.-Quentin, and carried them at two points. Intense German counter-attacks now held up the advance. At once Foch struck further north, using General Byng's army, with American divisions operating between Byng and Rawlinson. Moeuvres, only seven miles west of Cambrai, fell, and with General Horne's British army north of General Byng also attacking, the entire line crashed forward on a wide front opposite Cambrai. The fighting was of the most desperate and bloody nature. Within a few days the suburbs of Cambrai were reached, the Americans taking Bellecourt, Nauroy, and the key position of Guillemont Farm. The St.-Quen-

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tin Canal, which here formed one of the defenses of the Hindenburg Line, was crossed by General Rawlinson's forces at Belle Eglise. The work of the American troops at this point—representative of what they did at every other point at which they were engaged—has been described by General Rawlinson himself, in an interview given on the battle-field.

"You American correspondents," said General Rawlinson, "should not pass by this place without hearing what your men did here, and what it meant. This is where two of your American divisions fought splendidly, and where many of them died. No troops ever fought more valiantly. Inexperience cost them more men than they should have lost, but their courage and determination in the face of tremendous obstacles was magnificent. What they did here will make the name of Guillemont Farm famous in American history. It was one of the vital spots of the war. As you see, this farm is higher than any of the surrounding ridges for miles.

"Over there, five miles away, was the main Hindenburg line, running through the town of Bony, which was a regular rabbit warren of concrete *boche* dugouts, trenches, and tunnels. For two and a half years the *boche* had been building and strengthening this line, and he firmly believed it proof against any army in the world. This place where we stand was the outpost of the main



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FOUR FAMOUS ALLIED COMMANDERS

King Albert of Belgium
General Diaz

Marshal Pétain
General d'Esperey



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ON THE DECK OF THE BATTLESHIP "NEW YORK"

Left to right, Admiral Beatty, Admiral Rodman, U. S. N., King George of England, The Prince of Wales, and Admiral Sims, Commander-in-Chief of the U. S. Overseas Naval Forces, after the surrender of the German High Seas Fleet

line. When, on September 25th, the commander-in-chief determined that the attack upon the line was to be made, our first job was to take this farm, because this, as is very easily seen, was the only spot from which the main line could be effectively shelled at any point where it was not necessary to cross the canal.

“The *boche* knew the vital nature of the farm just as well as we did. He knew we had to have it, and he had exhausted his ingenuity in trying to make it impregnable and untakable. Line after line of trenches honeycombed the hill, hundreds of big guns were trained on it, and it was literally covered with machine-gun nests and barbed wire entanglements. It was mined and defended in a quite remarkable way.

“It is a fact that this farm was taken and retaken not less than seven times before we finally held it. Once your American boys went clear through and over the hill, but they failed to mop up [destroy the hidden machine-gun nests and other defenses in their rear] and the *boche*, coming out of his back trenches after they had passed, counter-attacked, retook the hill and cut them off.

“Our attack had begun at five o'clock in the morning of September 25th, with the two American divisions and the Australians. The French were on our right. The fight here lasted three days, and in the end it was tanks that carried the crest.

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“Your troops had to come up these steep slopes from the valley under terrific machine-gun fire, and they behaved with the utmost valor. Knowing full well what the loss of this farm meant the *boche* defended it with tremendous force and determination, and it was only really captured when the tanks got in the trenches and ‘sat down’ on the machine guns.

“With this hill in our possession we gave the main line a forty-eight-hour bombardment, and then, when our infantry attacked, we went through and got Bony. The [Hindenburg] line was broken, and the *boche* has never been the same *boche* since. His confidence was shattered.

“At the same time the other attack of the 46th British Division succeeded, and the St.-Quentin canal was crossed, but that is another story. What I want you to understand was the significance of the Guillemont Farm fight in the smashing of the Hindenburg line, and to tell you of the part the Americans played in it. Every American should know about it.”

In treating a subject so vast within the limits of a single volume, it is possible to indicate only in the broadest way the operations of the armies engaged. This description of the fight at Guillemont Farm by the general in command tells the story of hundreds of similar conflicts, in which the troops of all the Allied nations fought and died with the sublimest courage. In previous wars

acts of great bravery could be singled out as notable; in this great war they were universal. Only cowardice would have attracted attention.

General Pershing, in his report to the United States Secretary of War, made after hostilities had ceased, has this to say concerning the work of American divisions operating with the British and French on various parts of the front:

“Other divisions attached to the Allied armies were doing their part. It was the fortune of our 2d Corps, composed of the 27th and 30th Divisions, which had remained with the British, to have a place of honor in co-operation with the Australian Corps on September 29th and October 1st in the assault on the Hindenburg line where the St. Quentin canal passes through a tunnel under a ridge. The 30th Division speedily broke through the main line of defense for all its objectives, while the 27th pushed on impetuously through the main line until some of its elements reached Gouy. In the midst of the maze of trenches and shell craters and under crossfire from machine guns the other elements fought desperately against odds. In this and in later actions, from October 6th to October 19th, our 2d Corps captured over 6000 prisoners and advanced over thirteen miles. The spirit and aggressiveness of these divisions have been highly praised by the British Army commander under whom they served.

“On October 2-9 our 2d and 36th Divisions

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were sent to assist the French in an important attack against the old German positions before Rheims. The 2d conquered the complicated defense works on their front against a persistent defense worthy of the grimmest period of trench warfare and attacked the strongly held wooded hill of Blanc Mont, which they captured in a second assault, sweeping over it with consummate dash and skill. This division then repulsed strong counter-attacks before the village and cemetery of Ste. Etienne and took the town, forcing the Germans to fall back from before Rheims and yield positions they had held since September, 1914. On October 9th the 56th Division relieved the 2d, and in its first experience under fire withstood very severe artillery bombardment and rapidly took up the pursuit of the enemy, now retiring behind the Aisne."

Field-Marshal Haig, the British commander-in-chief, wrote of the work of the Americans under his command as follows:

"Now that you are leaving the British zone I wish again to thank you and all the officers, non-commissioned officers and men on behalf of myself and all ranks of the British armies in France and Flanders for the very gallant and efficient service you have rendered during your operations with the British Fourth Army.

"On the twenty-ninth of September you participated with distinction in a great and critical

attack which shattered the enemy's resistance on the Hindenburg line and which opened the road to final victory.

"The deeds of the Twenty-seventh and Thirtieth American Divisions which took Bellecourt and Nauroy and gallantly sustained the desperate struggle for Bony will rank with the highest achievements of the war.

"The names of Brancourt, Premont, Busigny, Vaux-Andigny, St. Souplet and Wassigny will testify to the task and energy of your attacks. I am proud to have had you in my command."

The terrific thrust at the Hindenburg Line opposite Cambrai broke it definitely in the center, and the Allied troops occupied the city on October 9. The situation of the German armies was becoming precarious.

Some days earlier, on September 28, Marshal Foch delivered his final crushing blow in the north. While the German positions along the Belgian coast east of Dixmude were being bombarded by units of the British Navy, the Belgian Army, under King Albert, together with a British army under General Plumer, attacked from the Paschendaele Ridge near Ypres, north to the sea. The attack was immediately successful, penetrating a distance of five miles on the first day. Many prisoners were taken, and the usual large numbers of guns, and great quantities of ammunition and other stores. Within two weeks the Germans,

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their flank in Belgium thus threatened, began a rapid retreat from the Belgian coast, giving up the submarine bases at Zeebrugge and Ostend. Bruges fell, and the Allies moved on Ghent.

A general survey of the front at this stage of the battle shows the German lines torn from their anchor positions on the North Sea, cut opposite Arras, with the Allies approaching Lille, Douai, and the Belgian frontier, cut again further south at Cambrai, and dangerously threatened from St.-Quentin to Laon. Let us now take up the final blow in Marshal Foch's great strategic plan—the cutting of the Hindenburg Line by General Pershing and his troops north of Verdun.

Before considering this difficult operation, we should understand something of the nature of the task which confronted the American armies at this point.

The Germans did not depend entirely upon the Hindenburg Line for their defenses in Belgium and northern France. Behind it they had three other strong lines, stretching from Belgium to the southeast. But while these lines were widely separated at the center, and to some extent in the north, they all came together in the south, joining each other in a tremendous system of defenses many miles deep, from a point just north of Verdun down to the fortress of Metz. To General Pershing and his men was assigned the almost im-

possible task of cutting through these lines where they ran close together, north of Verdun.

The purpose of this operation was as follows: The Germans in Belgium and France had two principal lines of retreat to their frontiers in case of disaster. One of these lines consisted of the railroads running eastward through Belgium to the German frontier at Liège. These lines were now in the greatest danger.

The other great avenue of retreat open to the Germans was the double-track railroad running through Maubeuge, Mézières and Sedan to Metz. Sedan lay some twenty-five miles north of the Allied lines about Verdun. If General Pershing and his men could reach Sedan, the entire German force in Belgium and France would be caught in a gigantic trap, from which there was no possibility of escape, since between these two main avenues of retreat lay the mountainous Forest of the Ardennes, affording no passage for large bodies of men with their stores and equipment.

The first movements of the American forces north of Verdun began in September, immediately after the taking of the St.-Mihiel salient, and while they were in progress, a final thrust at the Germans in the vicinity of Cambrai must first engage our attention.

On October 8, Foch struck south of Cambrai, between that city and St.-Quentin, which latter place

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was menaced by the French. Three British armies drove against the now tottering German defenses and broke them to pieces. In three days of terrific fighting they passed far to the rear of the old Hindenburg Line, and in the north threatened Valenciennes, while in the south they took Le Cateau. Lens, Lille, and Douai, in the north, were evacuated by the enemy, while on the French front the armies of General Mangin captured the St.-Gobain Massif, Laon, and La Fere. The German armies on the west front were in a desperate plight, their only hope to retreat to the safety of their own frontiers. Let us see how General Pershing's armies prevented their escape.

Seldom in history have troops been assigned so difficult a task as the one which now confronted the Americans north of Verdun, and seldom if ever have they accomplished such a task more brilliantly. The entire operation occupied about six weeks, and there were more men engaged in the battle on the American side than in any in the country's history. The main German lines at this point, consisting of almost impregnable positions lying one behind the other for a depth of over ten miles, were the strongest, the most formidable, they possessed. They understood fully that a break here meant the collapse of their entire system of defenses west of the river Meuse; indeed, with Pershing's forces advancing to the north on both banks of that river, they could

not hope to make an effective stand west of the Rhine.

Not only did the German defenses north of Verdun consist of innumerable artificial barriers of every sort—trenches, forts, barbed-wire entanglements, and machine-gun nests by the thousand—but there were great natural barriers, such as the high ground at Montfaucon, and above all, the great Argonne Forest itself, stretching for ten miles in a north-and-south direction just west of the river Meuse. This forest the Germans had converted into one huge maze of hidden barbed-wire entanglements; concealed nests of machine guns, placed so as to enfilade every avenue of advance; steel forts containing machine guns built in trees, with dugouts below into which the gunners could retire during bombardments, only to appear again as soon as the bombardment had ceased, ready to direct their fire on the advancing enemy.

A dense forest fortified in this way is the most difficult barrier to an army's advance which it is possible to encounter. The foliage of the trees prevents observation by airplanes from above. Fallen trees, swamps, and traps made by digging deep pits and covering them with thin boards and sod, render tanks almost useless; even artillery is of little value, since the gunners, unable to locate their targets by airplane observation or otherwise, can only fire blindly, often with danger

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to their own men. In some cases the barbed wire, interlaced between the trunks of trees, formed such impassable barriers that bridges had to be constructed by the American engineers, under fire, before the infantry could advance across them. It was through many miles of such a forest as this that the American troops were called upon to advance; and they did it, week after week, with the greatest heroism, suffering large losses, but keeping doggedly on, their work, without spectacular features, attracting little attention beside the smashing successes the Allies were gaining on other parts of the front. When the full story of General Pershing's advance through the Argonne Forest is written, it will form one of the most brilliant pages in American history.

The American forces, their right flank lying on and protected by the Meuse, their left moving through the Argonne Forest, began the attack early in the morning of September 26. The troops had been moved into the front-line trenches during the night, taking the place of the French infantry holding them. It was hoped to surprise the Germans, and to some extent this was done. On the first day of the attack the enemy's front-line trenches were occupied, and by September 28, against constantly increasing resistance, General Pershing's men had advanced from three to seven miles, taking the hill and fortified village of Montfaucon and eight other villages. At the

same time, an American division operating with French Colonial troops advanced up the east bank of the Meuse, to protect the main army's right flank and prevent the Germans from shelling it from across the river. This first phase of the attack netted the American forces ten thousand prisoners.

A thrilling incident of the advance in the Argonne Forest was the loss of an entire battalion of American troops in the depths of the wood. Advancing beyond their supports, they were cut off and surrounded by the Germans for three days. Although virtually without food and water and subjected to constant fire day and night, they refused all suggestions of surrender and were finally rescued, after heavy losses, by their advancing comrades.

The army now halted to dig in, and consolidate its gains, while engineers were at work in the shell-torn areas back of the new lines, repairing roads and bridges so that heavy artillery and supplies could be moved rapidly forward. Heavy rains made the work extremely difficult. Often the men were obliged to haul their guns forward by means of drag-ropes. Meanwhile the enemy, taken by surprise, appreciated his danger and rushed up heavy reinforcements of his best troops from other parts of the front. No matter what happened elsewhere along the battle-line he knew that here he must hold fast. Heavy counter-at-

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tacks were made against the American lines during the following week. The Americans not only held their ground but continued to make small but steady advances. The defense of the Germans, especially that of their machine-gun detachments, was desperately brave, and the American losses were large.

On October 4 the lines were again sent forward, and advanced against very heavy concentrations of reserves hurriedly brought up by the Germans. Division after division of the best troops the Germans had were hurled against the American lines, only to be thrown back broken and defeated. Ground was won almost by the foot; yet so steady and continuous was the progress that by October 10 the Argonne Forest had been cleared of the enemy, in spite of his desperate resistance. American 14-inch naval guns, mounted on especially constructed railway trucks permitting high-angle fire, were used with good effect in driving the enemy out of the woods, as well as in shelling railroad junctions and yards, ammunition dumps, and other points far behind the lines. These guns discharged shells weighing fifteen hundred pounds, and their extreme range was thirty miles.

At the northern tip of the forest was situated the town of Grand Pré, and it was planned that the American forces should unite at this point with a powerful advance being made by the French

to the west of the Argonne Forest. The French troops under General Gouraud, driving northward east of Rheims, made large gains all along the line. By the last day of September the Allied forces just west of the forest had reached Binarville, six miles below Grand Pré, while off to the west the American troops mentioned by General Pershing in his report as having taken Blanc Mont were rendering splendid assistance to General Gouraud's forces in the capture of Somme-Py.

In order to reach Grand Pré, General Pershing's forces were obliged to penetrate the second German line of defense north of Verdun, called the Kriemhilde Stellung (or position). By the middle of October, fighting every inch of the way, the American armies had cut deeply into the Kriemhilde position, and reached Grand Pré, where they were joined by the French. Half the distance to Sedan had been gained, and the attempts to hold the Americans back had cost the Germans a quarter of a million men.

At about this time, in spite of the heavy work still facing the American armies, General Pershing was nevertheless able to detach two divisions from his forces and send them to the front in Belgium to assist the French operating about Ypres.

These troops gave a good account of themselves, winning distinction in their operations along the river Scheldt, and capturing Audenarde. The

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commander of the army corps to which they were attached gave them especial praise for their energy and dash.

In Flanders the French took Roulers on October 14, and on October 17 the Germans evacuated Lille. All the Belgian coast was in Allied hands. The British and French were nearing Valenciennes and Hirson, both points on the line to Sedan and Metz.

The American offensive reached Grand Pré on October 16, and the following day Romagne, an important post in the rear of the Kriemhilde Line, was taken. At the same time advances equally satisfactory had been made up the east bank of the Meuse. On October 23 Bantheville, on the west bank, was reached. On November 1 a final great assault in force was launched which swept everything before it. Over seven hundred and fifty thousand American troops took part in the attack. In twenty-four hours the battle had become a rout, with the Germans everywhere in retreat. So rapidly did they fall back that on November 3 the American troops were conducting the pursuit in motor-trucks. Heavy guns were rapidly brought up so as to command with their fire the railroad line running through Montmedy, Conflans, and Sedan. When this was done, the Germans were virtually trapped, as the road was almost useless to them, but the American infantry kept on. An entire army corps crossed the Meuse to the east

bank on November 5, and the following day, the forces on the west bank reached a point opposite Sedan. As General Pershing said in his report to the Secretary of War:

"The strategical goal which was our highest hope was gained. We had cut the enemy's main line of communications and nothing but surrender or an armistice could save his army from complete disaster."

The Germans used forty divisions of their best troops in their effort to stem the American advance, and failed, although they held every advantage of position. They lost during the battle twenty-six thousand prisoners and four hundred and sixty-eight guns. Measured by its results, they had sustained one of the most disastrous defeats in history.

The great Battle of 1918 had now drawn to a close. Everywhere along the long battle-line the Allies were advancing almost at will. Ghent, Valenciennes, Maubeuge, Hirson, Mézières, Sedan had fallen, and by some singular fate the British had fought their way across the frontier between Belgium and France to the town of Mons, at which place, over four years earlier, their expeditionary force under General French first came into contact with the German armies. Equally interesting is the fact that the war ended with the arrival of French and American troops at Sedan, which, it will be remembered, was the scene of the great

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French surrender during the Franco-Prussian War. Now indeed were the tables turned.

The Germans knew that they were decisively beaten. They knew that a great American army was ready to cross their frontiers south of Verdun, isolate Metz, and invade Germany by way of the Rhine. The war was lost. The people at home refused to support the military party any farther. They asked for a cessation of hostilities.

Diplomatic exchanges, looking to the granting of an armistice, had been going on between Berlin and Washington for many days. At last the Germans were informed that if they wanted an armistice, they must apply to Marshal Foch. On November 8 envoys reached the headquarters of the great commander, which he had established in the ruined village of Senlis. Their first words were, in substance, "Marshal, Germany's army is at your mercy."

Terms upon which the Allies would consent to a cessation of hostilities were laid down, in the form of an armistice, and after three days the German envoys accepted them, and the armistice was signed. Immediately, on November 11 at eleven o'clock in the morning, fighting ceased on all fronts. The German emperor had meanwhile fled to Holland, where he later abdicated his throne, and almost at once Germany became the scene of a nation-wide revolution against the rulers and military leaders who had brought on the war.



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SURRENDER OF THE GERMAN HIGH SEAS FLEET

The column is led by a British light cruiser



(Associated Press)

PRESIDENT WILSON AND PARTY

From the ruins of Central Union Hotel are inspecting the ruins of the destroyed St. Francis Hotel.

General von Ludendorff fled to Sweden, and one by one the rulers of the several German states were forced to abandon their thrones.

It has been said that in the hour of granting the armistice Marshal Foch showed more than at any other time the greatness of his character. He had fought with infinite skill for many months to bring about a German defeat, first through the dark hours of the great German offensive in the spring, and later, through the brilliant successes of the summer to the crowning glory of victory. In another week, or at the outside two, he would have been able to cause the most colossal surrender in the history of the world. Yet, in order that no more lives might be sacrificed, he permitted the fighting to cease. A smaller man might have found many pretexts to delay negotiations, meanwhile insuring to himself this huge military triumph. That Foch did not do so places him among the world's immortals.

CHAPTER XXX

RESULTS OF THE WAR

THE immediate result of the war was the signing of an armistice which left Germany powerless. Her allies had already been rendered so. There was no possibility of further resistance.

In a general way the armistice with Germany provided that her armies should at once be withdrawn from all invaded territory, in Belgium, France, Luxemburg, and from Alsace-Lorraine, fourteen days being allowed for this operation. Forces of the Allies and the United States were to occupy these territories as the enemy withdrew. Russia and Rumania were also to be evacuated. All inhabitants of invaded countries who had been carried off to Germany were to be returned at once.

The German armies were to surrender to the Allies as they withdrew, 2500 heavy guns, 2500 field-guns, 30,000 machine guns, 3000 trench mortars, 2000 airplanes, 5000 locomotives, 50,000 railroad cars, 10,000 motor-trucks, and a vast amount of other war material. All merchant ships belonging to the Allies in German ports were to be returned. The German navy was to be virtually destroyed by the surrender of 160 submarines

(all she possessed), 6 battle-cruisers, 10 battle-ships, 8 light cruisers, 50 destroyers, and a large number of auxiliary ships, such as repair vessels and mine-layers.

All prisoners of war in German hands were to be released at once, the Allies, however, retaining all their German prisoners. The iniquitous treaty of Brest Litovsk, as well as the one forced on Rumania, were declared void. Every precaution was taken to render Germany, from a military standpoint, helpless. Allied and American troops, advancing into German territory on the heels of the retiring enemy, were to occupy the Rhine cities of Mayence, Coblenz, Cologne, and the bridge-heads on the eastern side of the river, so that crossing could not be effected, while a stretch of territory along the east bank of the Rhine over eighteen miles in width, from Holland to the Swiss border, was declared neutral ground.

All these provisions were to be carried out within thirty days from the date of the armistice, and meanwhile a conference was held in Paris to arrange the terms of a permanent peace.

On November 20, Germany's great sea surrender was begun, when twenty submarines were turned over to an English squadron off Harwich. On the twenty-second it was completed by the delivery to the Allied and American fleets of the battle-ships and other war-craft named in the armistice. In utter silence the German battle fleet steamed

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through a lane of British, French, and American war-ships twenty miles long, comprising the most powerful body of fighting-vessels ever assembled, and was interned in the Firth of Forth, on the east coast of Scotland, pending the final decision of the peace conference concerning it.

The officers and men of the Allied and American battle-fleets looked on in pitying contempt as these great German war-ships crept silently to their anchorages. It was recalled that in the war between the United States and Spain the Spanish ships under Admiral Cervera (shut up in the Harbor of Santiago, Cuba, by a superior American force) had made a hopeless but gallant dash for liberty, and had gone down with flags flying. In justice to the German officers it should be recorded that they planned a similar dash into the North Sea, but their crews, infected by the doctrines of Bolshevism, refused to obey orders, and the plan was abandoned. Certainly nothing could have been gained by such a move from a practical standpoint; yet one cannot but believe that an American or Allied fleet, similarly situated, would have made it.

On land the withdrawal of the German armies progressed rapidly, and early in December French forces occupied Mayence, American troops entered Coblenz, Cologne was taken over by the armies of Great Britain, while the Belgians crossed their borders and assumed charge of the German cities

of Aachen (Aix-la-Chapelle) and Düsseldorf. Everywhere the German inhabitants expressed astonishment at the moderation shown by their conquerors. Their cities were not subjected to the iron rule which they had forced upon the cities of Belgium and France; instead, the inhabitants of them were treated as human beings, and the occupation was made without the least friction.

In Alsace and Lorraine the French population greeted their deliverers with joy, and when those provinces were formally taken over by France, General Petain was raised to the rank of Marshal of France, as Foch and Joffre had previously been. In Belgium King Albert returned to his capital in Brussels amid scenes of the wildest rejoicing, while in northern France the refugee population streamed back toward the villages and towns that had once been their homes, only to find in most cases that they were returning to heaps of shattered ruins.

In Germany, as in Austria, chaotic conditions prevailed. The abdication of the rulers of the several German states was followed by the setting up of provisional republican governments in many places. Friction developed at once between Prussia and the South German states. Bavaria was declared a republic. A similar government was formed in Berlin. Sailors at Kiel, workmen at the great Krupp plant at Essen, organized local governments under the control of the "Reds," and

elsewhere movements of the same sort were begun.

The final adjustment of affairs in Germany, Austria, and Russia belongs to the political rather than to the military history of the great war, and we shall not attempt to treat it here. Certain definite results, however, were brought about by the war, and can be perceived at its close. Others can be only foreshadowed. Among the former, it may be regarded as finally settled that France has regained her lost provinces of Alsace and Lorraine, and that Italy has placed under her flag the Italian-speaking territories around Trent and Trieste. That autocratic government in Germany and Austria is a thing of the past seems beyond question. Arabia is finally freed from Turkish rule, and has become an independent kingdom. The Armenian people have formed a republic. Whatever disposition is finally made of the Turkish provinces of Syria and Palestine, it is unlikely that they will be restored to the rule of the sultan, and the same thing may be said of Mesopotamia. The Dardanelles will doubtless be opened to free passage by the ships of all nations, and Constantinople be made an international port. In the Balkans a greater Serbia will be formed, and not only Montenegro but Bosnia and Herzegovina will probably unite with her. Transylvania, by the vote of her people, became a part of Rumania on December 7, 1918, and the former Russian province of Bessarabia was united

with Rumania the year before. Albania will doubtless achieve its independence.

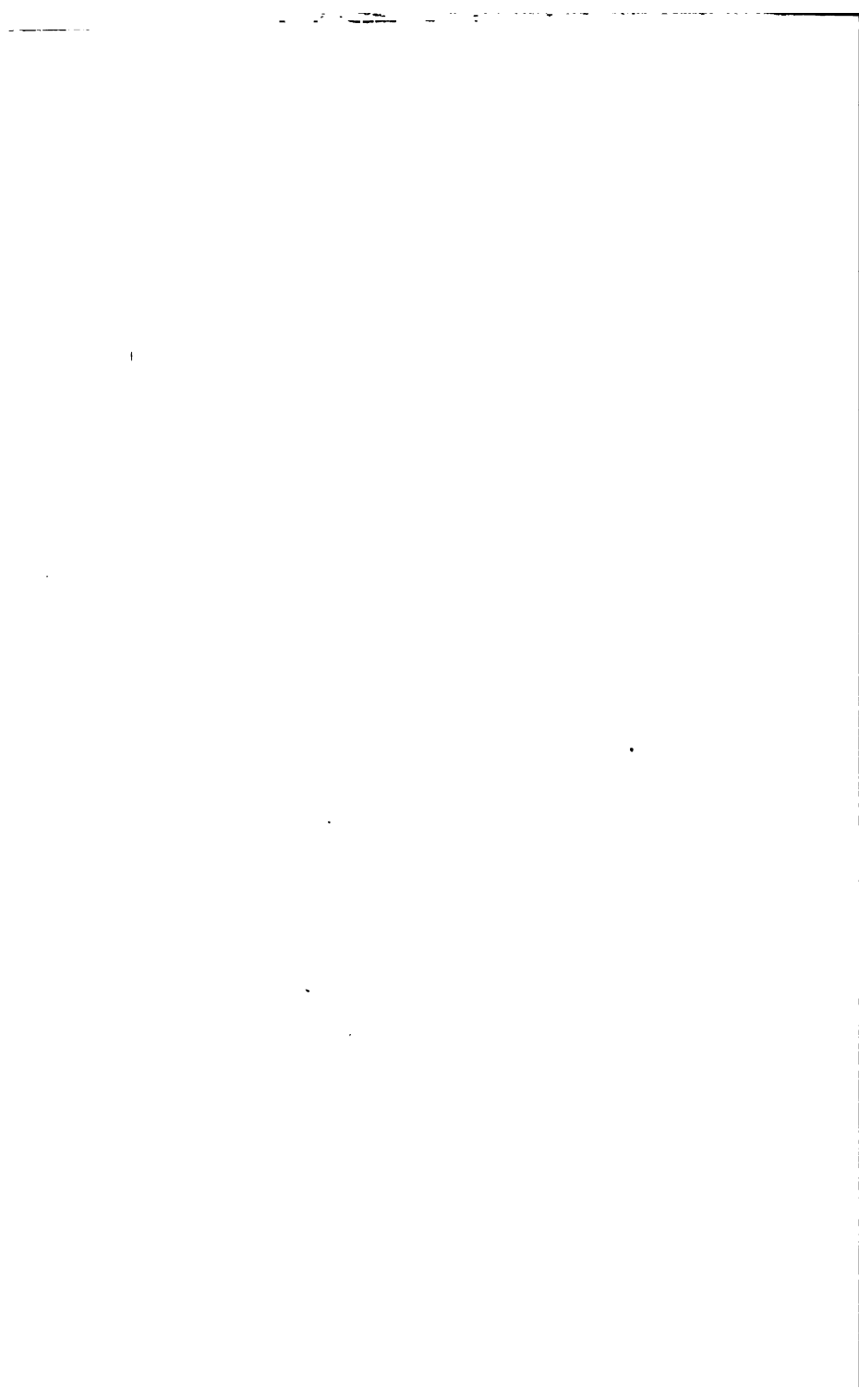
The Czecho-Slovaks of Bohemia have formed a republic, which the United States and the Allies have recognized. Both Hungary and Poland have become republics. The Yugo-Slavs in southwestern Austria have declared their independence, as have the people of the Austrian Tyrol. In Russia, Livonia, Esthonia, and Courland have formed a joint Baltic federation of free states, while Lithuania, the Ukraine, and Finland have asserted their independence. The German-speaking people of the old Austro-Hungarian Empire have expressed a wish to unite with those of their own race in Germany, while the Danes in Schleswig-Holstein desire once more to become a part of Denmark. Everywhere we see a breaking up of artificial groupings of peoples into new and independent states, formed of those of the same race, under governments of their own choosing. The principle so well expressed in the American Declaration of Independence, that "all governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed," seems destined to spread throughout the world.

And as the artificial grouping of peoples of different races under unjust forms of government was the basic cause of the war, so its destruction everywhere should be the war's most important result, guaranteed, it is planned, by a League of Na-

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tions. In accomplishing this, many difficulties must arise, many grave problems be solved; but, as we have said, these questions are political ones, and belong to the period of reconstruction, of peace. We have attempted to outline the progress of the great war from a military standpoint, and with the cessation of hostilities our narrative properly comes to a close. Colossal as were the sacrifices which the war involved, no thinking man can doubt that the benefits to humanity which will flow from them will more than outweigh those sacrifices. Those who suffered, died, have not done so in vain. In the immortal words of Abraham Lincoln, "they gave their lives that government of the people, by the people, for the people, might not perish from the earth."

THE END





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